

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Republican Conventions of Virginia and Georgia last week proved very turbulent bodies, and held several excited sessions. In Virginia there was no question as to the preference of the convention for the candidacy of General Grant, and the delegation to Chicago was pledged to support him, without protest. But the overtures of the Mahone Repudiationists gave rise to a warm contest over the matter of appointing Presidential electors; those who favored a coalition with the "Readjusters" advocating deferring the choice of these, while the "Straight-outs" vigorously opposed any postponement and all affiliation with the Mahone faction. The two parties were very evenly divided, and the opponents of coalition were successful only after a long and heated discussion, and by a vote of 69 to 61. It is now alleged on the one side that Mahone will support Grant in any event, for the sake of getting a share of the Federal patronage, and on the other that the Republicans have thrown away an excellent chance of carrying Virginia, and giving its final quietus to the already beaten Bourbon Democracy of the State. It is not unaffecting to observe the chastened satisfaction with which the *New York Times* and other advocates of true Republican principles as against the policy of the moment contemplate this sacrifice.

The *Times* draws a vivid and pathetic picture of the Georgia Convention, in which it seems the Grant men were outrageously treated. Owing to their indisposition to submit to being snubbed and cheated, and to the vigorous protest they made, at least one adjournment was rendered necessary, and even subsequent sessions were marked by a disorder which obscured the proceedings so effectually that it would be impossible to get at the truth and right of the matter were it not for the "wholly unprejudiced" account furnished by the *Times*. In the light of this we discover that the people of Georgia, being almost unanimous for Grant, elected a Grant convention, or would have done so if their will had not been thwarted by a fusion of Treasury agents and Blaine "workers"; and that the enemy captured this body in the most barefaced manner after having paved its way by "spending money freely," and "systematic packing," and the use of proxies from Grant counties by the dozen. The result was, that the only deliberation of the convention concerned prospective honors and emoluments, of which, according to one resolution introduced, the negroes were to be considered entitled to one-half, and, according to another amending it, to three-quarters, and that the Chicago delegation chosen stands eight each for Blaine and Sherman, and six for Grant. The Oregon delegation, also chosen last week, is reported to be in favor of Blaine.

The speech of Senator Jacobs at Albany the other day is one of those public utterances which are called "significant." Coming on the heels of the Syracuse Convention, the action of which is popularly supposed to have increased the probability of Tilden's nomination at Cincinnati, and over whose deliberations Mr. Jacobs presided, its announcement that the Democrats proposed to nominate the strongest man they had, whether he should prove to be Tilden or not, naturally created surprise in some quarters and consternation in others. The Albany *Argus* made a comic attempt at an official explanation, viz., that the remark was intended in a Pickwickian sense; some of the Grant journals are equally anxious that it may not be taken seriously. Several circumstances render this difficult, however. Jacobs is one of the shrewdest and most cautious of that class of men who pursue political intrigue as an art; he has hitherto been a firm supporter of Tilden, and, like the rest of the Kings County Democrats, has vigorously opposed Kelly and Tammany.

Moreover, the Brooklyn *Eagle* has betaken itself to elaborate expositions of the unwisdom of nominating Tilden, having, after an offensive and defensive alliance rarely equalled for duration and intimacy, suddenly broken with "Boss" McLaughlin, one of Tilden's stoutest benchmen. All this may mean either an anti Tilden revolt much better engineered than Kelly's blandering opposition, or, which seems far more likely, a semi-official notification that the "cruel old spider of Cipher Ailey" means so to arrange matters that he shall be consulted instead of combated at Cincinnati.

The present House of Representatives has three times within the space of two months been made the victim of deliberate imposition on the part of its own members, so that the existence of a mania may fairly be suspected. Mr. Acklen, of Louisiana, first showed symptoms of it in February, when he presented and got printed a report purporting to come from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, but in reality an unauthorized concoction of his own; and that he has not recovered is proved by his introduction last week of a bill having no relation to the report which was supposed to accompany and justify it, and which on investigation turned out to be a plagiarism from Chief-Justice Marshall in a famous case to be found in the law-books. In March Mr. Townshend, of Illinois, was smitten, and secured a reference for a bill to amend the tariff with only sectional indications in its title, by which the House was quite thrown off its guard, as the honorable member expected it would be. Finally, the contagion reached the delegate from Wyoming Territory, Mr. Stephen W. Downey, who on Monday, April 12, introduced a bill "providing for certain paintings on the walls of the National Capitol"—namely, to commemorate "the birth, life, death, and resurrection of our Saviour Jesus Christ, as told in the four Gospels of Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John," and on the following day was accorded permission to print his "argument" in favor of the bill. A week ago this argument appeared, covering the first fifteen pages of the *Congressional Record*, and copyrighted by the author, with "all rights reserved"—the rights of the House of Representatives excepted. It consisted of a poem entitled "The Immortals," in Wyoming blank-verse, interspersed with metrical quotations from Dante, Tennyson, "The Rock of Ages," etc., and adorned with a pictorial emblem. The mischief having been done in this case, the House was powerless to repair it except in the bound volume of the *Record*; and it can only hope that Mr. Downey's successor, however great his impudence or conceit, will in vain attempt to improve upon this pious fraud.

The Geneva Award Bill was amended on Wednesday week in the Senate in such a way as to make Mr. Thurman decline to father it any longer. The claims of the insurance companies were rejected on motion of Mr. Hoar. At length on motion of Mr. Eaton, who regards the award as a national one, and wants the balance applied to the sinking fund for paying off the national debt, the bill was indefinitely postponed by what was virtually a party vote, the Republicans in the negative. The Senate has also passed the Army Bill with its rider, rejecting several amendments which will be heard of when the Democratic "record" is overhauled during the fall campaign; and it has begun in earnest the discussion of Kellogg's title to his seat. The House, after a futile resistance from the Republican side, has passed the Special Deficiency Bill with its rider as returned from the Senate. On Thursday, the ever-recurring question of centralization came up in connection with the bill to regulate immigration, which naturally has the support of the New York delegation, but is opposed by many Republicans on grounds the force of which can hardly be gainsaid. The head-money formerly exacted of the steamship companies by the Emigration Commissioners of this State was cut off by a decision of the U. S. Supreme Court declaring the impost unconstitutional,

The bill under debate aims to secure an annual appropriation from the Treasury (not only for New York but for all the seaboard States), to be used in meeting the expenses of the State machinery already established. The need of such machinery cannot be questioned, if only as a measure of national defence against improper immigration; but the bill appears to be seriously defective.

There would be little more to be said on the subject of the Geneva Award if the public had before it any report of the proceedings at Geneva, and had not forgotten the circumstances under which the award was made. This enables the war-premium men as well as others to indulge in the most extraordinary perversions of the history of the case, and to propose with impunity modes of dealing with the money which would astound people of ordinary morality if it were a transaction between individuals. The *New York Herald* of April 17, for example, had an article on the subject, in which all the fundamental facts of the arbitration were misstated with the utmost calm. The Geneva Commission, for instance, did not "award the United States a sum *en bloc* as a compensation for damages inflicted by three rebel cruisers." It awarded it to the United States for individuals and corporations by name and date. Secretary Fish did by agents or counsel "take precautions against any committal of the United States as to the disposition of the sum," but no such precaution or committal was of the smallest consequence. A litigant's instructions to his attorney do not bind the court or justify a refusal to obey its judgment after accepting money under it. Moreover, our Government *did* "appear at Geneva as agent or trustee of private claimants for damages," and, more than this, its offer to appear in another character—that is, as a claimant on its own account—was disallowed by the arbitrators. There is in the Treasury a large sum of money obtained by its proving as such agent or trustee the claims of insurance companies, and which but for the proof of such claims would not have been paid by Great Britain. It is now, however, boldly maintained in Congress that the insurance companies suffered no loss and were not entitled to anything—or, in other words, that the claim made for them at Geneva was a tissue of false pretences.

Mayor Kalloch's son, on Friday last, went to the office of De Young, the man who shot his father, and, in a fit of filial piety, shot and killed De Young. "Intense excitement," of course, immediately "prevailed." The assassin was conveyed to jail, where he is strongly guarded, and the Kearneyites also placed a guard round the Mayor. De Young was out on bail, and was to be tried on the 3d of May for his attempt on Kalloch senior. That Kalloch senior should be a minister of the Gospel is comic enough, but the joke is improved by the fact that Kalloch junior is a minister too. A conversation between the father and a reporter on the son's conduct has not been surpassed in recent literature. He said of the murder that in a short time "the whole thing will blow over," and he also remarked, with a noble optimism which ought to make him a "star contributor" to Colonel Forney's *Progress*, that it was "one of the inevitable evils which are not unmixed with good." The clergyman in him evidently triumphed over the parent, for he remarked with professional anxiety that he feared his son "might have some trouble with the Church," who would "have to try him for shedding blood"; but he "was not without hope that their action would not cut off the young man's usefulness in his calling as a minister of the Gospel." The son is the father's "assistant pastor." The proximate cause of his attack on De Young was the preparation by the latter of a little biography of his parent, a seemingly harmless if not complimentary work; but in our day and generation nothing makes some prominent men so furious as the production of their memoirs by a close and conscientious observer and investigator.

The charge made against Governor Cornell of having renominated Smyth for the Superintendentcy of Insurance with the view of giving him an opportunity to extort money from the insurance

companies for the campaign funds of the Machine, derived only too much support from Smyth's antecedents in the same office. His last exploit, however, almost amounts to confirmation. Since his resignation, and pending the appointment of his successor, he, on the 19th of April, called on three of the leading insurance companies in this city to submit to an examination of their securities—a piece of work which to be done properly would take some months, and which, if there were any good reasons for doing it now, would properly fall to his successor, who was to come into office on April 30. That he had no *bonâ-fide* examination in view, however, and was simply in pursuit of money, he revealed in the most impudent manner, by requesting the companies to retain as counsel a firm in this city of which General Chester A. Arthur is head, and a certain William Laimbeer and one G. H. Henry as "valuators," and declared that the report of these gentlemen would be accepted by him "as correct." General Arthur's position in Machine politics is, of course, well known, though it must be added that his friends allege that he was not aware of this use of his name. Laimbeer is one of Smyth's henchmen, and figured in connection with the broken Third-Avenue Savings Bank, and Henry is an active local "worker." What the money raised in this way might have amounted to may be inferred from the fact that Mr. "Tom" Murphy, another Machine worker and "valuator," charged last year, in a bill which the State Comptroller refused to pass, for similar work on a scale which would have given Laimbeer \$186,000 for "valuing" the assets of the Mutual Life Insurance Company alone. What General Arthur's firm would have received as "counsel" would probably have been settled by private arrangement. Altogether the scheme, if carried out, would have furnished nearly enough to pay the expense of the great impending attempts to save the American people from "the uncertainties of government." The production of the correspondence, by order of the Legislature at Albany, has naturally produced a great sensation. What a picture it affords of the kind of régime in State and National politics a third term would be!

The Pennsylvania bribers have at last been called up for judgment, and, after hearing a severe lecture from the Court, have been sentenced to a fine and to be imprisoned for one year in solitary and separate confinement with hard labor. No such severe penalty has ever before befallen leading politicians for the over-zealous pursuit of their calling, and they are doubtless astounded by it. Kemble's case is a peculiarly hard one, as he is one of the best "workers" in the State, and has probably been as much moved by the horrid disorders in the South as anybody in the whole country. To be shut up, too, on the eve of a Presidential election is a peculiarly bitter thing.

The Whittaker case has made little progress during the week, but the testimony of experts as to handwriting exculpates the victim, while other testimony given under oath increases the probability that the real authors of the outrage will be found, if anywhere, among his fellow-cadets. A resident of the neighborhood has reported what a cavalryman at the Point told his father since the trial began, namely, that Cadet Burnett (one of the first on the scene after Whittaker was discovered, and who endeavored, when on the stand, to imitate the tying upon himself) had remarked "in the spring" that "if Whittaker didn't leave shortly, a job would be put up on him and he would have to leave." The effort to trace the identity of the three cadets who were said to have been at Ryan's the night of the outrage has only succeeded in revealing the fact that the discipline at West Point is no stricter than of old, and that cadets go frequently to Highland Falls for convivial purposes, in spite of Ryan's absolute denial. He was, in fact, flatly contradicted by his wife, and has since been arrested for perjury.

The officers at West Point have not only shown themselves very sensitive to public opinion about the way they have conducted the trial, but have had several sharp encounters with Mr. Townsend,

whom the Secretary of War has employed as assistant counsel to the U. S. District Attorney, and who, if not treated with too much courtesy on his first presenting himself, has in turn not been careful to respect the feelings of the Academy. It is an anomaly, certainly, for a Government institution conducting an internal investigation under its own rules, to be subjected to the surveillance of the Government itself, under circumstances distinctly implying distrust. That, of course, is the real meaning of Mr. Townsend's appointment. We do not say that the Court has not invited this treatment by its attitude towards Whittaker, and its unwarranted presumption of a higher standard of honor and humanity among the cadets than really exists, when (as appeared in the evidence last week) an Indiana cadet actually resented Whittaker's falling in next to him. Still, Mr. Townsend ought to refrain from addressing himself to the reporters, as he has a great temptation and apparently no disinclination to do. Let us have all the light we can on this brutal affair, but let it be borne in mind that the object of the enquiry is not, whatever the result may be, to put the Academy, any more than Whittaker, on trial. The real defendants are the persons, as yet unknown, who bound and mutilated the unfortunate cadet.

In Wall Street the money market became "easy" during the week in spite of the stock speculators, and the reserve of the banks increased so as to show a surplus of more than \$2,000,000. The market for bills on London became strong late in the week, and rates were advanced. The discount rate in London advanced to 2½, or within ¼ of the nominal rate of the Bank of England. The Stock Exchange markets were dull, and the tone of speculation changed from day to day, with the result at the end of the week of lower prices. Outside of Wall Street all kinds of speculation are undergoing liquidation, but the substantial interests of the country are prospering. Immigration is increasing at a rate which has no parallel in recent years, and the figures for April bid fair to exceed those of any month on record; during the first three weeks of the month the arrivals at the port of New York were 33,852, and the arrivals at other ports were proportionately large. Importations of foreign goods continue heavy; the official figures for the whole United States for the first eight months of the fiscal year show a gain of \$110,000,000 over the previous year. Of this increase 46 per cent. was of articles which pay no duty but which are used in domestic manufactures. Railroad traffic continues very large, and the net receipts of the leading roads show a handsome gain over last year, while many new or reorganized roads which were then earning little or nothing are now netting comfortable returns for shareholders.

The new English Ministry would apparently have been promptly organized but for the difficulty of satisfying the radical wing of the Liberals, led by Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke, which was averse to any office that did not carry a seat in the Cabinet with it. It is separated rather by temper than by aims from the Whig wing of the party led by Lord Hartington, and is now known as the Birmingham School. There is a distinct flavor of republicanism about it and a certain indifference to traditions which the Whigs hold very sacred, and a strong leaning towards American methods of party discipline and organization. It has introduced the caucus into some of the large towns, and makes a profession of openness to new ideas and practices to a degree hitherto unknown in English politics. It has furnished the Tories, too, with materials for most of their arguments as to the destructive tendencies of the Liberal party, and is very restive under leadership of any kind. It has apparently been satisfied with the Under-Secretaryship of Foreign Affairs for Sir Charles Dilke, and the Presidency of the Board of Trade for Mr. Chamberlain. The acceptance of the Premiership by Mr. Gladstone is generally received with great relief, and was, in fact, in spite of his bygone declarations that he would hold office no more, a necessary consequence of the active part he has taken in the canvass, and the large degree in which he has con-

tributed to the overthrow of the late Ministry. After his recent performances in this field his remaining outside the Ministry would not simply have been a great anomaly but a distinct menace to the permanence of any ministerial combination. Lord Granville is to be Foreign Secretary, Sir William Harcourt Home Secretary, and Lord Hartington Secretary for India.

The way the English newspapers which have for the last three years been predicting the most dreadful consequences from the return of the Liberals to power now accept the situation, shows that the art of "wheeling into line" is making good progress in England. There has been no election since the Reform Bill of 1832 in which such awful things were predicted, by the party in power, as likely to result from their defeat. In fact, most of the ministerial papers, and particularly the *Pall Mall Gazette*, came fully up to the American standard in this field of activity. They do not take the defeat quite so well as an American "organ" takes it. The American paper never can quite conceal the joke which underlies its most dismal forebodings if things go the wrong way "at this momentous crisis," and generally manages to smile and go cheerfully into some other sensation the day after election. The English editor takes a more solemn view of himself, and does not cheer up for a few weeks, but this time he has been very quick in laying aside his mourning. The Beaconsfield editor already shows signs of being proud of Mr. Gladstone, and makes no attempt to conceal his continued belief in the durability of the Empire.

Some of the collateral effects of the Liberal victory already begin to show themselves. Of course Lord Lytton has sent in his resignation. Some of the Tory papers lament this as a sign that hereafter the Governor-Generals of India will go out with every change of Ministry. But, unfortunately, Lord Lytton was not a mere Governor-General. He was sent out as the exponent of the "imperial policy," and made himself active and obnoxious, and, as the Liberals believe, mischievous, as its propagandist. In other words, he made himself as far as he could part and parcel of the Ministry at home. Sir Henry Layard and Sir Henry Elliot come home for similar reasons. The change of Ministry ought not to affect them, but they both sent home loud-mouthed support of the Beaconsfield Turkomania and Russophobia, which Sir Henry Layard aggravated by an attack on Mr. Gladstone, whose political career he evidently thought had closed. The Prince of Wales, too, it is said, has called on Mr. Gladstone to congratulate him, although the Court inflicted on him the ostentatious and, we believe, unprecedented slight of not inviting him to the Duke of Connaught's wedding. It now remains to be seen whether Dean Stanley will persist in setting up the Prince Imperial's monument in Westminster Abbey. That scheme, too, though doubtless not of ministerial prompting, was the product of the "imperialist" atmosphere which Beaconsfield managed to diffuse through London society, and which made the Prince, in spite of the French people's emphatic repudiation of his house, seem a gallant young man contending for his rights, instead of what he really was—an adventurer seeking to excite civil commotion in a peaceful state for his private advantage.

General Stewart has entered Ghazni after a sharp fight with a body of eight thousand Afghans outside the walls, in which they seem, by a series of desperate onsets, to have penetrated the British line at more than one point, but only to be cut up by the cavalry and mowed down by the Martini-Henry rifle. Their loss, in proportion to that which they inflicted, is reported as enormous. The city was found entirely deserted, and the fortifications in a wretched condition. The boy Musa Khan, Yakub Khan's son and heir, was carried off, but it is supposed that he can be recovered. It is now freely predicted that this fight ends the Afghan struggle, but the same thing was said after the fight at Shirpur last winter. The Afghan forces are easily dispersed, but they also reassemble easily.

THE MACHINE AND THE THIRD TERM.

"I AM not now, nor have I ever been, a candidate for a renomination. I would not accept a nomination if it were tendered unless it should come under such circumstances as to make it an imperative duty—circumstances not likely to arise."—*President Grant's Letter to General Harry White, of Pa., May 29, 1875.*

"With the present term of Congress my official life terminates. It is not probable that public affairs will ever again receive attention from me further than as a citizen of the republic always taking a deep interest in the honor, integrity, and prosperity of the whole land."—*President Grant's Annual Message to Congress, December 5, 1876.*

If we suppose that the foregoing utterances were sincere at the time they were delivered, we cannot help being puzzled at the present aspect of our national politics. In saying that he would not accept a nomination except under circumstances making it an imperative duty, of course General Grant reserved some latitude of judgment as to the nature of those circumstances; but no one would infer that the possibility of getting the nomination by hook or by crook was one such circumstance. To say "I would not accept the nomination unless I could get it," would be both superfluous and foolish; yet that appears, in the light of recent events, to be the correct interpretation of the letter to General Harry White. The great emergency having been dissipated by General Grant himself in his Cairo speech, and yet again in his Bloomington speech, where he said: "The Union flag floated over us everywhere [at the South], and the eyes of the people in those States are as familiar with its colors as yours, and look upon it as guaranteeing to them all the rights and privileges of a free people without regard to race, color, or previous condition of servitude," there is no circumstance imperatively requiring him to accept a renomination unless ability to get it be counted as such.

If there be any other crisis making it an imperative duty for him to accept a renomination, it must be something which does not appear upon the surface. The clatter of tongues and the turmoil of State and county conventions show that there is a crisis of some kind, even if not a public one. The party does not get into a white heat about nothing. It is all very well to say that the Democrats are a vicious, unprincipled set, but this is no answer to the question why General Grant should be renominated, or why the novelty of a third term should be imported into our system of government. Blaine, Sherman, or Edmunds can be relied on to keep the Democrats out of office as well as Grant. Therefore the particular danger does not arise from the machinations of Tilden or those of Kelly, but has its seat in the internal workings of the Republican party itself. Even the common politician's last word, that his candidate can get more votes than any other candidate, fails when applied to General Grant, because everybody knows that he caused the Republican party to lose a national supremacy of sixteen years' duration. Moreover, nobody is so obtuse as to believe, or so brazen as to pretend, that the third-term argument will *gain* any votes to the party, while most people agree that it will cause the loss of some, irrespective of the merits or demerits of the person thus handicapped.

We are bound to presume, nevertheless, that there is a reason why it is an imperative duty on the part of General Grant to accept a renomination if he can get it. It is now too late for him to decline with grace or dignity; nearly one-half the States have elected delegates for or against him; and in only two State conventions has the issue been anything else than Grant and anti-Grant. The "circumstances not likely to arise" when he wrote his letter to General Harry White have somehow arisen, though it is not easy to discover them. The improbable contingency of his ever again giving attention to public affairs except as a citizen, which he took pains to impress upon his fellow-citizens in his last annual message, has become a reality, but its nature and complexion can only be guessed at, and may well excite the curiosity of the American people, if not of the civilized world. To solve the riddle we must ask who are the persons and what are the influences potent in the Grant movement, and what they expect to acquire as the result of it.

The first and most notable object that strikes the view in such an enquiry is the influence which wrested the State Convention of Pennsylvania out of the hands of the Blaine men, who undoubtedly had it on any fair computation. This was the work of the Machine, and it is quite unnecessary to tell what the Machine is, though its pedigree can be traced back to the Grant Administration without difficulty. It has become one of the most important, perhaps the most important, of all our institutions. In a country so much given to party spirit as ours has always been, popular sovereignty resides in the primary meeting and the nominating convention, if anywhere, and the Machine has seized upon the primary meeting and the nominating convention wherever possible. This is what the Machine is for—it has no other *raison d'être*. As against the mass of individual voters who fancy that they have something to say, and some influence to exert upon public affairs, it has the same efficiency that a well-paid battalion of police has against a crowd in the street. It may fairly be said that in neither Pennsylvania nor New York, the only Northern States that have yet pronounced for General Grant in their conventions, would he have had any chance whatever but for the Machine. This is not the same thing as saying that none but the office holders and those whose interests are allied with theirs desire his nomination, but the fact remains that without these he would have had less than a majority in either State, and hence would have been out of the field before now. If he gains a majority in Illinois it will be due, in like manner, to the energy and successful working of the Machine.

In another paragraph of his letter to General Harry White, General Grant said that it was impossible for any President to renominate himself. This is quite true, but it is also probable that a President plus a Machine could nominate or renominate anybody, and could do so as many times as the people would ratify the nomination at the polls. In other words, if the Machine can renominate General Grant now, with a President who is indifferent, much more can it renominate him four years hence if he shall then think that "circumstances make it an imperative duty." Here, we apprehend, lies the real danger of introducing a third term into our political system. The individual voter is more and more divorced from any real share in the government of the country in proportion as the Machine becomes more compact, better disciplined, more obedient to a central power. Being reduced to a political cipher, the individual voter will gradually lose his interest in public affairs, and dry rot will set in. Historical examples of this kind of political decadence are not wanting, the misery of which is that at no particular time does the danger seem very pressing, though all the time it is becoming more difficult to recover the lost ground. It is not likely that any of us will live to see the day when the Democratic party will be any more acceptable to the average Republican voter than it is now. It may be more or less acceptable to the Independents and the class known as the "floating vote," but to the steady-going Republican, whose choice before the nomination is "for the nominee," and to the judicious-minded Republican, whose preference as "between two evils" is always for his own party candidate against anybody whom the other side can nominate, it will always be too utterly abandoned and depraved and loathsome to admit of any doubt as to the duty of the hour. Consequently, if any resistance is to be made by this class of voters to continuous Presidential terms, amounting to a settled regency, the time to make it is now, before the Chicago Convention. Those whom party ties hold more loosely will carry their resistance to what they believe to be a danger to republican institutions into the election, but the strict party man should bestir himself to-day, and if he should go as far as the St. Louis Convention he would do no harm, even from his own limited outlook.

We conclude that the "circumstances not likely to arise" which would make it an imperative duty on the part of General Grant to accept a renomination, are none other than the necessities of the Machine, and the Senatorial Group, and the local Bosses who flourished during his last term. Diligent scrutiny fails to reveal

any other crisis, and it is for the people to judge whether this is an emergency in which they have any concern, or whether, on the contrary, it is not one which they have the greatest interest in confronting and grappling, with a view to preserving their own initiative in shaping the destinies of the country. This initiative begins in the primary meeting, and with the great majority ends there. Boss government aims at seizing it—has already seized it in our two largest cities and in many of the smaller ones. The third term is intended to make the seizure complete and co-extensive with the Union. If it has any other logical aim it would be well for some of its advocates to point it out.

RUSSIA AS VIEWED BY LIBERALS AND TORIES.

ONE of the most interesting questions suggested by the victory of the English Liberals and the impending change of Ministry concerns the relations of England and Russia. Under the Beaconsfield administration these have been as bad as could be desired. Ill-feeling between the two countries being essential to the Tory programme, it has been encouraged by all manner of expedients; and it may justly be said that if war, which has been an easy possibility at any time during the past three years, and seemed really inevitable during one long crisis, had actually broken out, the leading cause would have been not that Russia actually threatened any English interest, or that many rational Englishmen even believed she did, but that a reckless national hatred, aroused and kept alive by the basest arts of the demagogue, threatened to become too powerful for control. An actual trial of arms did not enter, perhaps, into Beaconsfield's plans. War was, nevertheless, very near in those critical months when the Russians lay before Constantinople and the English fleet was at anchor in the Sea of Marmora. The Tories were playing a desperate game. A single rash step would have precipitated a conflict. Yet, while the demonstration of the iron-clads seemed to accomplish its purpose of keeping the enemy out of Constantinople, the truth is that the conflict was averted chiefly by the prudence and forbearance of Russia, and that the object of her fear, if she was influenced by such a feeling, was not England, but Austria. This will appear when the secrets of that period are thrown open to the world. The Russophobists were not satisfied, however, with this apparent victory nor with the cheap paper triumphs of Berlin, but persisted in a policy of suspicion, hate, and menace. The speeches of the Ministers, the articles of the Tory press, the measures of the Government assumed the desirability of continued hostility between London and St. Petersburg, and were well adapted for the purpose.

All this will now be changed. The Liberal leaders, like their party, have far less original sympathy with the institutions and methods of Russia than their Tory rivals, but they recognize in the enfranchisement of the Balkan Slavs a cause which may be good in spite of bad advocates, and are unwilling to see its interests sacrificed by England to an absurd national antipathy. They are determined that Greece shall not be abandoned in the flippant and heartless style of Lord Beaconsfield. They have no disposition to call the news of an alliance between the two great military empires of Central Europe "glad tidings of great joy." And in respect to Russia herself, seeing no reason for cultivating systematic enmity toward her, but believing rather that even her friendship ought not to be wantonly thrown away, they will try her measures and policy by the same impartial tests which they apply to other Powers, will not hasten to put a bad construction on every step she takes, and will sincerely endeavor to cultivate good relations with a Power which has no very serious antipathy to England, and heartily desires a good understanding with her.

A natural consequence of this improved policy, or rather a feature of it, ought to be a sincere effort to become better acquainted with Russia, and to diffuse such acquaintance among the mass of the English people. The chief ally of Beaconsfield was the popular ignorance of the "traditional foe," an ignorance shared indeed by the whole world, though deliberately fostered only by the Tories.

But it is gratifying to observe that the desire to know more about Russia and the Russians is daily becoming stronger. Attention has hitherto been directed toward that country and people only on certain rare occasions, created by grave political events, such as violent movements of reform or reaction within the Empire itself, or European convulsions in which the Empire has been a prominent factor. As is natural, too, the knowledge acquired at such long intervals and during such brief periods was fragmentary, superficial, and untrustworthy. The figures of Peter the Great and Catherine II. were sufficiently picturesque to excite curiosity, and yet not real enough to prevent the rise and circulation of innumerable myths and legends which long passed for historical facts. The partition of Poland was a transaction in which Russia, for no other apparent reason than her obscurity, was made to seem far more guilty than either of her two partners. The Napoleonic wars in which the Russians for the first time came into direct contact with the Western Powers, and especially the campaign of 1812, gave us the jingling epigram of Bonaparte, with the alternative for Europe of becoming either Republican or Cossack, and the familiar history of the Count Ségur, long the standard work on the subject. The great events of the two last reigns, however, have at length lifted the country from the darkness of fable and superstition into the light of historical truth and exact knowledge. In this, the positive school of Russian students, several names are deservedly prominent. Mr. Thomas Mitchel, an English consular officer, had the advantage of being born in Russia, of living there many years, and of having official facilities for investigation. Although he knows the people and their language thoroughly, he has written little except Murray's admirable 'Guide,' and sporadic newspaper contributions; but the archives of the British Foreign Office, if thrown open to the public, would afford abundant evidence of his zeal, his industry, and, above all, his information. Our own countryman, Mr. Eugene Schuyler, is another pioneer in this field of research. In the language, the literature, the history, the politics, the society of Russia, he is alike well informed, and great expectations may justly be entertained of his life of 'Peter the Great.' Without aspiring to the character of a scientific treatise, it will not be satisfied with repeating the Czar's adventures in England as a ship-carpenter, or other idle stories or legends of the nursery. Of Mr. Wallace's elaborate work little needs to be said except that in the opinion of some critics it is even surpassed by the treatise of a French author, M. Rambaud. The Germans have, of course, the largest number of books on the subject, and the greatest mass of material, collected with their usual industry and arranged with their usual slovenliness. There are, besides, the purely literary authors like Turgeneff and Ralston, who have thrown floods of light on various phases of Russian life.

Mr. Wallace is threatened with a host of imitators, even among his own countrymen. Last summer a number of literary M.Ps. visited Russia, a practice which cannot be too highly commended. The privations of such a trip are, indeed, somewhat greater than in Switzerland or Italy, for the landscapes are dreary, the distances are great, official formalities are vexatious, and the language is a perpetual obstacle, especially to the student and enquirer; but, on the other hand, the railway accommodations are comfortable, the hotels of the first class are reasonably good, the people are hospitable and obliging. The more intelligent Russians are singularly anxious to facilitate the efforts of a stranger who seems to come with the honest intention of learning the truth about them and their institutions. Mr. Wallace testifies to this fact; it is, we are sure, the experience of every candid traveller. In short, the experience of every tourist who visits Russia in the right spirit is that the people court investigation, and are convinced that it will tend to expose the many misapprehensions and misrepresentations under which they suffer. The officials are not always to be trusted, though they are more easily accessible than those of England or Germany, and not more untruthful than those of Austria. But the officials and people alike will not give an enthusiastic welcome to English travellers who begin by denouncing the iniquities of the

and, and evince a desire only to confirm the bad preconceptions which they bring with them.

In addition to this negative source of error—the failure to visit the Russians at home or in a spirit of unprejudiced enquiry—there is a second and positive one. Too many people form their opinions of that nation from the itinerant specimens which they find in other parts of Europe. Now, the European or cosmopolitan Russian—the Russian of diplomacy, of the baths and the gaming-places, of Paris, Constantinople, Baden-Baden, and Monaco—is a person essentially different from the landlord, or the official, or the general whom one meets in the country itself. Whatever vices the latter may have the former is pretty sure to carry with him. He is by nature ignorant, narrow-minded, vain, and ambitious, is fond of display and coarse in his tastes. But while these faults in the home Russian are relieved by courage, good-nature, and hospitality, they are corrupted abroad by the exigencies of a different society, and by the addition of a new class of social and personal vices, into arrogance, duplicity, and a sort of wanton cynicism. The amiable chauvinism of Moscow becomes at Constantinople the restless foe of European peace. A dissolute noble on his estate is noxious only to his own narrow circle, but at the German bath his profligacy, though a little more refined, is also more extravagant in its form and more subtle in its influences. Ladies are fond of chattering politics at St. Petersburg, but only for home effect, while their sisters at the leading capitals or the fashionable resorts adopt the bolder tone of women of the world, develop a surpassing love of intrigue, and found popular salons which are avoided by decent women, but are frequented by throngs of needy and unscrupulous adventurers. These metamorphosed Russians—the intriguing diplomatists, the spendthrifts and gamblers, the political prostitutes of both sexes—are to most observers, and especially to the English, the types of the people and the authors of their policy. Nothing could be more unjust to the Russians. Nothing could be more reckless for England herself than to make her national prejudices and her foreign policy depend on the impression created by such idle adventurers.

When the English enquirer turns his back on such characters, and penetrates into the heart of Russia and Russian society, he will be surprised to find that the Anglophobists are much fewer in number than the Russophobists in England, and far less violent in their appetites. He will testify, if he be a faithful witness, that there is little deep-seated animosity towards the English. He will hear plenty of declamation against Germany, and even Austria. The manifest destiny of Russia in the East will not want noisy expounders. That the nation is offended at England for the malignant hostility of her course during the past years will not surprise, nor ought it to provoke, him. But he will not find England regarded as the eternal foe, with whom a conflict is inevitable. He will learn, on the contrary, that the Russians rather deplore the unfriendly sentiments of England, would prefer to live in peace and harmony with her, and direct their arrows against enemies nearer their borders, more keenly hated, and more justly feared. When this truth shall be accepted in England the complete folly of Lord Beaconsfield will become fairly apparent.

BISMARCK AND THE FEDERAL COUNCIL.

BERLIN, April 13, 1880.

AS you have been informed by telegraph of the immediate cause of Bismarck's resignation and of its non-acceptance, I need not dwell on the facts and will only give a few comments. The Berlin, and in general the German, people have become accustomed to Bismarck's whims. He is a man who likes to surprise the world by bold and unexpected measures. On former occasions he had announced his resignation as imminent in order to achieve some advantage over his adversaries, or the fact was only published after he had gained his point. This time, however, he reached his end by almost clandestinely inserting in his semi-official paper—the *Norddeutsche Zeitung*—a statement that he had sent in his resignation, in the same paragraph and even in the same line with indifferent news. Here everybody knew

beforehand that the Emperor would not accept it. The papers and their readers, deputies and diplomatists, therefore, only debated the real reasons which had led the Chancellor to take this grave step. "What is he driving at? whom does he want to attack? is it a matter of home or of foreign policy? will old William surrender at once? how long will the comedy last?"—these and other more or less incredulous and irreverent questions were raised and answered by the public at large. In less than twenty-four hours all these doubts were answered by a very sensible letter from the Emperor to his Chancellor, requesting him to propose his measures for curing the defects of the order of business in the Federal Council (Bundesrath). As this solution of the so-called crisis had been anticipated, it made little or no impression on the public mind here, which only regards the surface and cannot appreciate the deeper meaning of the Chancellor's action.

In marked contrast to this indifference at home stands the excitement with which the news of Bismarck's resignation was received everywhere beyond the boundaries of the German Empire. In Vienna and St. Petersburg, in Paris and London, the impression was overwhelming. The telegraph worked day and night, stocks went up and down, and diplomatic circles were as agitated as if an unexpected disaster were threatening. If any further proof had been required, this general feeling of insecurity and of anxious suspense showed that Bismarck is at present the real centre of European politics, and that the mere possibility of losing him suddenly has a pernicious effect on the whole state of public affairs. This is an honorable though involuntary, if not reluctant, acknowledgment of the powerful and beneficent rôle which Bismarck plays in all questions of European politics. The idea first gained ground that he had been led to his resignation by motives emanating from our foreign policy, and especially from Germany's relations to Russia. It was for this reason especially that the political world had apprehended some grave crisis, if not a war. But, whatever may be said to the contrary, Germany does not want war, she even cannot afford it; and it can but be repeated over and over again that Bismarck is anxious to secure peace. His attitude towards Russia rather proves than refutes this assertion, and herein lies the secret of his strength with the people. In order to arrive at a just appreciation of the relations of Germany and Russia you must never lose sight of the fact that since the beginning of the century, if not since the days of Frederic the Great, Prussia, and with her Germany, have been, as it were, in a state of vassalage to Russia; that the Czar Nicholas considered himself the arbiter of German destinies, and was even respected as such by Frederic William IV., the smaller princes, and the so-called *Junker* (gentry). Even the present rulers of Russia, with perhaps the sole exception of the Emperor Alexander, still flatter themselves with the idea of patronizing Germany, and of using her as a tool for their own ends. As soon as they understand that we are fully their equals—and Bismarck is teaching this lesson most impressively to Gortchakoff and others—and give up forming alliances for the purpose of overturning the hard-won Empire, Russia will never have to complain of Germany.

While in this respect almost all the Germans side with Bismarck they differ from him widely in his home policy. By every party except the Conservatives he is distrusted, and is only supported by his former political friends, as, for instance, the National Liberals, in the hope that they may recover a part, at least, of their former influence. His old political enemies are, of course, not reconciled with him. Everywhere a feeling of uncertainty and insecurity prevails. Agitation for radical reform is kindled and stifled, important measures are recommended and put aside, hopes are awakened and not realized. Even the present Conservative majority of the Reichstag grumbles and is divided against itself; it does not know whither it will be driven by the autocratic will of the imperious Chancellor. The so-called tariff reform does not at all prove a success. Instead of being relieved, the poor man has been saddled with heavier duties and taxes. The most important of them, the tobacco duties, have scarcely begun to yield a larger income, but already—just six months after its introduction—the much-dreaded spectre of the tobacco monopoly appears in the background. Although it will cost more than two hundred millions of dollars to buy off the private factories and to indemnify the several parties interested in the tobacco trade, although it will ruin the economic condition of about a million of people and nearly destroy the commerce of so important and patriotic a city as Bremen, Bismarck threatens in his organs to impose this suicidal measure if his other calls on the people's purse be not readily complied with. Prominent among others there is an impost on beer and beer-brewing, but not on whiskey (*Schnapps*), because the latter is chiefly manufactured by the large land-

owners, whose interest forbids a tax and whose votes cannot be dispensed with. Besides, there is a new duty to be laid on receipts, checks, and transactions at the exchange, such as transfers of stock. The Reichstag is not willing to pass these bills, as it is not yet apparent how much the new protective duties will yield. After the defeat, therefore, Bismarck will probably come forward with his tobacco monopoly and again raise the cabinet question—or, rather, as he has no cabinet, but mere clerks, again send in his resignation—in order to enforce his measure.

The motives for his last letter to the Emperor, in fact, lie deeper than the reasons alleged for them. "On former occasions the Chancellor never gave vent to his feelings when the Federal Council voted against him—as, for instance, when the seat of the Supreme Court was fixed at Leipzig instead of Berlin. Besides, the Federal Council has exercised a constitutional right which under certain circumstances may be inconvenient and inopportune, but as long as the Constitution is in force must be acknowledged. It is an injustice that thirty votes, representing seven and a half millions of inhabitants, can overcome twenty-eight votes, representing thirty-four millions; but the Constitution ordains the representation of the several states. It is an anomaly that Prussia with twenty-six millions has only seventeen votes out of fifty-eight, and that the fourteen votes of Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, and Baden can hinder any law; but Bismarck himself is the principal author of the Constitution. In the method of representation by proxies some amendment may be made in order to prevent the repetition of absurdities like the voting of the delegate of Brunswick, who cast ten votes for ten small principalities against Prussia and Bavaria; but the matter is of small account, and at all events not worth a crisis. I need not enter into any more particulars on the subject, as you and your readers, who live under a federal government, fully appreciate the delicate complications and niceties of public law which emanate from that form of government. You know from a long practical experience how often questions simple and plain in themselves become intricate by their connection with so artificial a political system as a federal constitution. There would be only one way of getting over this difficulty—viz., the suppression of the small principalities and the creation of one united empire with a single government (*Einheits-Staat*); but our small principalities will no more readily voluntarily abdicate and make room for Prussia than Delaware, Rhode Island, and other small States will give up their equal representation in your Senate. A real German unity will never be reached by a vote or other peaceful means; it can only be enforced by a revolution or a war. Bismarck knows very well why in this instance he does not appeal to the "last reason of kings," and must therefore leave the present state of things undisturbed.

At present he hates the small principalities more relentlessly than his Ultramontane adversaries; but his hate centres upon Russia. Passionate and suspicious as he is, he sees Russian propaganda everywhere. There is something quixotic in his temper, but the Chancellor is fearfully in earnest. In his morbid nervousness he looks out for his real foe, on whom to discharge his anger; whenever he strikes, the blow will hit. Now he considers the small principalities as the satrapies of Russia on German soil, and the court of Stuttgart as their headquarters, supported by ladies of royal blood. Accordingly he looked at the vote of the Federal Council, which was without any political bearing, as the result of a conspiracy between Württemberg and the smaller states to sap the foundation of the Empire, and resented it as a personal insult. When he was informed of the vote he was quite wild from excitement and wrote his letter to the Emperor. Under these circumstances it was to be expected that the Federal Council would at the earliest opportunity change their first vote in favor of putting the stamp duty on post-office receipts also. They did so yesterday. Thus the crisis, of course, has passed, but its effect on the independence and influence of the Federal Council is deep and pernicious. Bismarck will not tolerate an independent individual or corporation besides himself.

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STUDIES ON HYPNOTISM.

BRESLAU, March 25.

I CAME here from Berlin a week ago expressly to see the curious hypnotic experiments of Professor Heidenhain, whose results, published since those of Professor Weinholt mentioned in my last communication,* have excited great interest not only among physiologists but in the public at large. Beginning early in January, Herr Hansen, the Danish "magnetizer," gave a series of public exhibitions here, which lasted several weeks

and were very largely attended. Well-known citizens, old and young, who came upon the platform, after looking fixedly at a bright glass button which they themselves held some eight inches from and above their eyes, became insensible to pins thrust into their hands, imitated unconsciously and involuntarily every motion and sound made before them, and in short performed very many strange and absurd antics, of which, on waking, they were sometimes entirely unconscious and incredulous. These performances became not unnaturally the sensation of the hour, and the half-cultured, among whom the traveller recognizes certain unmistakable traces of that peculiarly weird Slavic mysticism so conspicuous a few hundred miles farther east, seemed actually growing credulous towards many forms of half-forgotten superstition, so that the city fathers thought science ought to have something to say about it, and rather naively invited Professor Heidenhain to press forward with the experiments he had already begun, and to follow Hansen upon the same platform, repeating and explaining in a rational way the experiments of the latter. Heidenhain's success has certainly been remarkable. He now declares that he has repeated every one of Hansen's performances. Many of his colleagues in the medical faculty are pushing on special investigation in the same line; and in hospitals, laboratories, and private parlors all over Germany many conformable experiments have been made.

Meanwhile Du Bois-Reymond in Berlin, who, by a strange coincidence, since about the time of his famous agnostic declaration some years ago respecting psychic and cerebral functions ("ignoramus ignorabimus") has done extremely little experimental work, insists that the whole thing is "only a psychosis"; and the younger men around him even venture to hint vaguely that Heidenhain is the victim of imposture; that he began the experiments because since his important work on secretion he has seemed to lack original themes for investigation, and that he is surrounded in Breslau society by bright but utterly uncritical men, and even women, whose *penchant* it is to read the voluminous French and German literature on animal magnetism, and to believe in occult and imponderable forces. Others fear that such experiments are injurious to persons hypnotized, and compare them with vivisections and other alleged cruelties of medical men. The validity of these charges can be best judged after a bold statement of the facts described by Professor Heidenhain,* all of which the writer has himself seen. The professor's brother, a tall, athletic, duelling medical student, the picture of health and said to be a scholar of much promise, has been hypnotized on an average two or three times a day for two months, and scoffs at the idea of being the worse for it. The writer was invited to stroke the ball of this student's left thumb with his own forefinger as lightly as possible and always in the same direction. Very soon the student's thumb, then the hand, then the arm and shoulder, were in a state of violent tetanic cramp, which passed down the right arm, then down the left, then the right leg, and then extended to the muscles of the jaw, and to those of the neck. The whole body was rigid and trembling, and the power of speech was gone. Directed by the professor, I struck the left arm smartly with the open palm of my hand, and the cramp instantly vanished, his brother started as from a sleep, looked confusedly around him a moment, then seemed to recover consciousness, and, remarking that he had had rather a strong dose, walked across the room and drank a glass of beer. The whole performance lasted less than a minute. A colonel brought in several stupid but burly soldiers from the barracks, who spoke only Polish, and, as far as could be made out afterwards, had never heard of such performances. Each one was given a loud-ticking watch to hold to his ear and told to listen intently, while the colonel threatened them savagely if they fell asleep. In five minutes two of them were in a profound cataleptic sleep, insensitive to pain, and on being wakened ten minutes later declared they had not slept. Slight, constant, and uniform or repeated irritation affecting the ear, eye, or skin, "passes" with the hand, the warmth of which is often effective at a distance, a tuning-fork, a watch, a distinct fixation point, with thoughts occupied only by the object felt, seen, or heard, seem to be the conditions of this state. Gentle rubbing forward and backward upon the top and front of the head causes the sleep, which is often too deep for the most striking results, to become lighter, and in some subjects a constant touch on the back of the neck between the first and second vertebrae makes them perfect imitative machines. Every motion, look, word, inflexion of the person on whom the attention is fixed, is exactly imitated; a long English sentence, e.g., with extreme

* See the Nation, No. 702.

* Der sogenannte thierische Magnetismus: Physiologische Beobachtungen von Dr. Rudolf Heidenhain, ord. Prof. der Physiol. und Director des physiologischen Instituts zu Breslau. Dritte vermehrte Auflage. Leipzig, 1880.

and grotesque inflexions, was repeated almost perfectly in every detail by an old workman in the hospital. The instant the finger is removed from the neck the repetition stops, often in the middle of a word.

Nor is this the strangest. With a number of his subjects Professor Heidenhain and his colleagues are able to hypnotize one-half of the brain and body, the other half remaining normal. One half the face smiles, and the other remains in the familiar immobile, waxy, cataleptic state. One arm and leg can be moved at will, the other not; one eye sees distinctly, and the other imperfectly or not at all. When the right side is hypnotized, aphasia is produced, but *not*, or only exceptionally, when the left side is affected. This is, of course, in accordance with pathological observations which locate the speech-centre in or near the left cerebral convolution, and with the anatomical fact that most of the so-called pyramidal or volitional fibres cross soon after leaving the brain. If the person thus affected be told to make some simple motion with the finger of the normal side—*e. g.*, to rotate the thumb about the other, and to continue the motion without cessation or interruption while observing another rotate his own thumb now in one, now in the other direction, a task easy enough in the normal condition—the half-hypnotized person, though believing himself in the full possession of his faculties, finds this impossible. He *must* stop every time that the experimenter changes, and generally reverse the motion for an instant, in spite of all his efforts to the contrary; but is immediately able to correct the error and go on as directed. This is almost invariably observed, and is explained by supposing that one-half of the brain, being reduced to the condition of an imitating automaton, is mechanically compelled by the retinal impressions to repeat the motion, and that the normal half must arrest this impulse by a special act of volition later.

Even one eye alone may be hypnotized, in which case color-blindness is caused. Prof. Cohn has made these phenomena an object of special investigation, and has used not only Seebeck's worsted patterns, but Hirschberg's ingenious method of detecting simulants by the crossing of perpendicular colored lines seen stereoscopically, and even Stilling's yet more confusing tables for detecting and measuring the degree of color-blindness—but without discovering any traces of feigning. An hypnotized eye which has gazed for a moment at brilliant-colored figures which seem only variously-shaded grey, when the colors are removed and the eye suddenly awakened, sees the complementary after-image of the colors which it has never perceived. The fact that atropine removes this induced color-blindness—or makes it impossible, may perhaps indicate that it is in some way connected with the cramp of the ciliary muscle. The facts thus far observed in this line are generally thought to be irreconcilable with Helmholtz's theory of three fundamental colors, but to be more or less explicable upon the hypothesis of Hering.

With earlier hypnotizers, "mesmerizers," or "magnetizers" these experiments were successful, almost without exception, with women only. Professor Heidenhain's observations have been entirely on men, and have succeeded with about one student in twelve. With all, the first time is the hardest, and while many grow so sensitive that a very slight influence makes them immediately unconscious, others after a while grow unsuspensible again, and finally lose entirely the power of being affected. Some acquire the faculty of hypnotizing themselves, and others, when told to remember that at a certain hour they are requested or influenced to sleep, do so without any of the ordinary means, and without even the presence of another person. Hallucinations are readily caused if a few verbal hints are given. With some subjects fibrillar twitches in various muscles, accompanied by other symptoms of increased excitability of the spinal and medullary centres, follow the experiments, which in such cases are always discontinued. Rheumatic patients often make movements with their limbs which seem impossible in their ordinary state. Far-sighted persons always see much nearer than usual. The handwriting in this condition is extremely bad, and some patients, under certain conditions, begin at once to write backward.

These phenomena are all thought to be explicable on the familiar physiological hypothesis of reflex action and inhibition. Farther and needed experiments are now being made to determine whether blood-vessels in the affected parts are expanded or, as is less probable, contracted. Not only are thermal changes in the face, hands, etc., marked and invariable, but as a rule, with many exceptions, anæmic persons seem most easily affected. The idea is commonly expressed that a new method of localizing the functions of the brain may be developed from the effects of varying local irritation. This is as yet, however, only conjecture.

By these experiments trance and mediumship are brought into the hospitals and laboratory, and instead of the venerable hypothesis of pos-

session by incorporate spirits, we have abnormal distribution of the nervous centres of circulation, with their well-known results. It is most noteworthy that while a few orthodox stalwarts feel compelled to seek refutations of materialism and evidence for personal immortality in reputed facts of spiritualism, and a few broken-down or utterly naïve and uncritical or previously discredited professors in Germany have imported an hypothesis of spiritual intercourse and agency as remote and utterly unsuggested even by the facts they allege as it is foreign to healthy brains and senses, another German professor, aided by many colleagues of his faculty and working by legitimate methods, has dealt the most deadly blow which modern spiritualism has yet received.

Correspondence.

THE PRESENT CRISIS IN VIRGINIA POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the decade and a half preceding the war the Democratic party in Virginia boldly cut the Gordian knot that many wise heads and brave hands had, as I think, intentionally failed to loosen, and established universal suffrage, and, though dominating thereby for a time, yet did so at the ultimate expense of the influence exerted by intellect, virtue and experience. Before the evil effects of such a policy could, however, be felt by natural development, the war came upon us, which, in a few words, resulted in the complete overthrow of the structure of tradition and virtuous wisdom which made the government of ante-bellum Virginia an honorable testimony and exponent of our republican institutions.

The Democratic party thus laying the warp of misfortune for us, the weaving in of the woof fell to the Republican party, which took up the thread where it had been dropped. There was engrafted into our political system a mass of negro voters who, being deplorably ignorant, were through ignorance voluble, and through volubility extremely dangerous. The Republican party was a political Messiah to the negroes, and a political fetishism was established, most disastrous to the material welfare of both whites and blacks. After some years of disorganization and confusion the possession of our State government was obtained by men mostly ignorant of the art of government, and not over-scrupulous as to the means which some used and others countenanced them in so doing. The systematic fraud by which the Conservative party gained absolute domination in Virginia was not only wrong in the abstract, but also in that it tended in the end, which has now come, to develop to an alarming extent the power of bad men to rule by bad means. This power necessarily arises from any policy, of suffrage or other, which brings into action the communistic elements of the populace. That element only needs to appreciate its power to assert its rule, and it has become aware of it in Virginia.

The Conservative party has for ten years held complete sway in Virginia, and its history may be told in a few words. It has either not had wisdom enough to originate good measures, or not virtue enough to legislate good laws, or not boldness enough to enforce and execute them if made. During the period in question, when, though the organization of the Republican party was almost broken up, yet the negroes rarely united with the Conservatives upon any question, the dangerous element of the people grew larger and more restless. Finally, there was only need of a hand to gather and marshal its forces and a head to guide them for that element to take a definite shape. In 1879 the commune ruled Virginia, for the head and hand needed were found. An ambitious man, himself "one of the people," shrewdly divined the course of events, and boldly conceived, and more boldly executed, the idea of taking advantage of the tide. Nothing could surpass the astuteness with which Mahona laid hold of the debt question then before the people, and upon which philippics most seductive to the popular ear could be pronounced, against the oppression of the poor, the tyranny of capital, and the rascality of brokers and speculators, particularly of the McCulloch syndicate.

There is, nevertheless, a large and respectable element, large enough probably to be essential to the power of the so-called "Party of the People," which, I believe, is honest in its action, and which co-operates with the Readjusters from a variety of causes too numerous to recite, but mostly arising from imposed-upon credulity or the antagonistic policy of the Conservative party. To determine how long this union of bad and good will last is beyond my ken, but I am confident of ultimate reaction,

and in the meantime we should have the kind charity and encouraging sympathy of our fellow-countrymen.

And now, sir, a few lines upon the Presidential election, and I am done. The "Independent Electoral Ticket" movement, started by Mahone, contemplates the union of Readjusters and Republicans upon a mixed ticket. This movement is essentially a Grant scheme. Mahone readily comprehends that the election of Grant will greatly aid and promote his cause in Virginia, for that election would result in the defeat and probably the downfall of his most formidable enemies. The prospects are that this Independent movement will be effectually established, and every indication leads me to believe that it will carry the State. That such is possible is plain, not only because many of our Conservative voters are for Grant in spite of newspapers and Virginia Congressmen, but also from the fact that last year Mahone carried this State against wealth, talent, pulpit, bar, State officers executive and judicial, and last, but not least, almost the entire press. That such is probable may be inferred from the disrupted, broken, panic-stricken organization of the Conservative-Democratic party of this State. Grant carried Virginia in 1872 with a more formidable opposition than that of to-day, and Mahone was against him. This year, if he secures the nomination, he will probably have Mahone's support, and Mahone at the head of a victorious party.

In the face of these things, with full knowledge of the aggressive activity of their opponents, the Democrats are acting with a surprising apathy. What the result will be no man can with any certainty predict. I, "being neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet," do not pretend to do so. The foregoing remarks are only offered as individual opinions resulting from close personal observation.—Respectfully,

A READER OF THE NATION.

VIRGINIA, April 15, 1880.

NOT GRANT, BUT ALSO NOT BLAINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The opposition to the nomination of General Grant is becoming so general, and so effectively organized, that it is high time to consider its secondary results upon the prospects of other candidates, and to call attention to the part which Mr. Blaine's friends are taking in it.

Most Independent Republicans, at least in Massachusetts, are opposed to Mr. Blaine's nomination at least as heartily as to General Grant's. They believe that the principles to which they are trying to hold the Republican party condemn both, and that it will be small gain if General Grant is defeated at the price of accepting a candidate whose political morality is so indisputably of the character which it is their purpose to rebuke. Yet the opposition to General Grant has been taken up, organized and appropriated by Mr. Blaine's friends to such an extent that it may soon become impossible to turn its front against the latter.

Every effort is made to shape the expression of that opposition in such a way as to leave it harmless against Blaine. The abstract objection to a third term is made especially prominent, and the "capacity-to-be elected" argument emphasized, while any downright demand for a pure candidate or for civil-service reform, and every specific objection to machine politicians, is hushed up. It becomes hard to tell of much of the strongest antagonism to the third term whether it means anything else than less love for Cæsar because more for Blaine. And it is this doubt which is now making many Independent Republicans hesitate to participate in ex-Senator Henderson's plan for a St. Louis Convention, to which you allude with some commendation in your last issue. Is it certain that this cannot become a demonstration for Blaine? The invitations contain nothing to forbid this; the great purpose is to protest against a third term, and there is nothing to indicate the wishes or intentions of the promoters in regard to the Blaine movement, though there is certainly nothing to indicate any sympathy with it, and very likely none exists. Still it would be well if some one would authoritatively settle this uncertainty. Furthermore, we hope that the managers have taken more precautions against capture, and have their convention better under control, than their circular invitations indicate. Are there to be any credentials required from delegates, is there any arrangement for representation, any scrutiny of members—in short, anything to prevent the convention being captured by any half-dozen men who may chance to combine and attend for that purpose, or being turned into a bear-garden by a howling mob from the streets of St. Louis?

We should like to have the plan fully opened to the public, for if safely arranged it may give the opportunity for efficient action. Mean-

time will not your paper turn so much of its criticism toward Blaine as to avoid giving him aid and comfort by an exclusive attack upon Grant?

J. B. W.

CAMBRIDGE, April 25, 1880.

SERVETUS AND HARVEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Tollin, whose article on Servetus in No. 254 of the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen* you notice in your issue for April 8, 1880, has before stirred the ashes of Servetus in order to cloud the claims of Harvey, who discovered the circular motion of the blood. In 'Die Entdeckung des Blutkreislaufs durch Michael Servet (1511-1553), von Henri Tollin in Magdeburg, in Sammlung physiologischer Abhandlungen herausgegeben von W. Preyer, Jena, 1876,' one finds Servetus spoken of as the "author to whom physiology owes the discovery of the circulation of the blood"; and again, it is said that "Michael Servetus, the discoverer of the circulation, had no predecessor." Then, as now, Dr. Tollin only reiterated a claim which had been more than once invalidated. Dr. R. Willis shows in his preface to the English edition of Harvey's works, which he edited for the Sydenham Society, that Servetus knew only the pulmonary circulation. Dr. S. Gamgee, of Birmingham, says in the *London Lancet* for January 20, 1877:

"The 'Christianismi Restitutio,' in which Servetus's exposition of the pulmonary circulation occurs, is a strange admixture of ingenious speculations and manifest absurdities, embodying a few physiological truths in a maze of anatomical errors. He speaks of the brain as a cushion or bed for the vessels of the animal spirit; of the nerves as a third class of vessels continued from the arteries; and of the ventricles of the brain communicating with the nasal fossæ through the ethmoidal foramina. Well enough may Professor Preyer head a note 'unintelligible' appended to one of a series of conjectures which elicit from Servetus's most recent eulogist the exclamation, 'Everywhere physiological fantasies in service of the Bible.' The attempt to reconcile the mystery of the Trinity with physical science was, as it ever must be, utterly hopeless, and in making it the daring Spaniard wrecked his reputation and his life."

The party of Calvin did their best to burn at once Servetus and all his writings; but at least one copy of his 'Christianismi Restitutio,' though it was badly smoked, was saved. From it P. Flourens, of the French Academy and Perpetual Secretary of the Academy of Sciences, Institute of France, reprinted, in the appendix of his 'Histoire de la Découverte de la Circulation du Sang' (2d ed., Paris, 1857), the physiological utterances of Servetus:

"It is certain," says Flourens, pp. 149-50, "that Servetus discovered the pulmonary circulation; but it is equally certain that the nonsensical book in which that great discovery is set forth was burned almost as soon as it was printed. Servetus influenced none of his successors. It is said that Servetus may have gained something from Nemesius, Bishop of Emesa [and one finds in 1879 John A. Weisse, M.D., in his 'Origin, Progress, and Destiny of the English Language,' bringing forward the name of Nemesius, a Syrian bishop of the fifth century, as a possible prompter of Harvey and as the author of 'a treatise containing the elements of modern physical and metaphysical science treated in a masterly manner']; this is a mistake. Servetus not only influenced no one, but no one influenced him. Nemesius says not a word of the pulmonary circulation so clearly explained by Servetus; he treats of the pulse, of animal heat, of the vital spirit; and he treats of it all just as Galen had done. He follows him in everything. The chief merit of Servetus is that he did not follow Galen; he contradicted him. 'If one compares,' says he with just confidence, 'these things with what Galen wrote in his books vi, and vii. of 'De Usu Partium,' he will fully comprehend that Galen did not perceive this truth.'"

In the list of those whose admirers have made them *ex-post-facto* claimants of Harvey's honors are found, besides those of Nemesius and Servetus, the names of Realdo Colombo, of Padua, anatomist; Andrea Cesalpino, of Arezzo, "anatomist, physiologist; botanist, mineralogist, doctrinal controversialist, and practising physician"; Fabrizio, of Acquapendente, Harvey's teacher of anatomy at Padua; Eustachio Rudio, compiling professor and contemporary with Fabrizio at Padua; Sarpi, of Venice, ecclesiastic; Carlo Ruini, senator and veterinarian, of Bologna; and England's omniscient dramatist, William Shakspeare. It has also been suggested that Leonardo da Vinci may have understood the circulation of the blood, he was so good an anatomist. Doubtless, the inextinguishable fact that Harvey published and died before they were born has alone kept the names of Goethe and Edison out of the list of Harvey's helpers. A little accurate knowledge as to what the circular motion of the blood is, how it was discovered, and by whom demonstrated would have saved many a discoverer of man's nests from proclaiming himself such in print. Such knowledge may be found in Flourens; in Willis's

preface to the Sydenham Society's edition of Harvey's works; in a series of articles written for the London *Lancet*, in 1876-7, by Dr. S. Gamgee, on "Harvey and Caesalpinus"; in Huxley's article, and also his address, on Harvey, published in America in the *Popular Science Monthly* in 1878; in an article on "William Harvey," in Dr. B. W. Richardson's 'Ministry of Health,' published by D. Appleton & Co., 1879; and, above all, in Harvey's 'Exercitatio de Motu Cordis et Sanguinis,' originally published in 1628, of which a Latin edition, revised by Drs. Lawrence and Aken-side, was published for the College of Physicians in 1766. A translation of the 'Exercitatio' was made by Dr. R. Willis for the English edition of Harvey's works published by the Sydenham Society in 1847.

If one wishes first-hand, practical knowledge of the motion of the heart and blood he may find it by studying a frog according to the directions given under the title "The Frog," in Huxley and Martin's 'Elementary Biology'; and in the chapter on the Circulation in Foster and Balfour's 'Practical Physiology.'

H.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, April 15, 1890.

CLEW TO THE FIFTEEN PUZZLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the very general, although slightly contemptuous, interest which the public takes in the Fifteen Puzzle chances temporarily to commend it to recognition in your columns, you may see fit to publish the following announcement that a method of always solving the puzzle has been discovered, less questionable than that described in the *New York Herald*, and available for any one who is able to discern the pitfalls in a common game of checkers.

The *Herald's* rule may be re-stated as follows: Holding the box just as you happen to have taken it, arrange in order the blocks numbered from 1 to 13 inclusive. This can always be done. The remaining two blocks will then either be also in order, in which case the work is finished, or they will be reversed. In the latter case rotate the box in any way so as to bring a different side of it uppermost, and rearrange—i.e., place number 1 at the new left-hand upper corner, etc., and the 15 and 14 will have mysteriously exchanged places so as to produce the desired uniformity. That the chances of the necessity for this rotation are exactly even follows from President Barnard's statement that all possible arrangements are reducible to one or the other of the two types.

There would be no objection to the legality of the quarter revolution, in the plan just described, provided it were performed at the beginning and not at the end. If performed at the end, the objections to it are three in number: 1st, the recumbency of the "gems"; 2d, the lateness of the rotation, looking like an afterthought following visible failure; and 3d, inconsistency with the decision as to the position of the box involved in the original adjustment of the verticalness of the blocks. It will be seen that all these objections are avoided in the method about to be indicated.

Insist at the outset that the box be emptied and the gems inserted with absolute promiscuousness, which can only be secured by the performer's closing his eyes so as not to know which side of any figure is placed uppermost, but only that the flat side is down. Then the chances will be that the gems will be about equally divided between the four possible postures, one-quarter being upright, one-quarter recumbent to the right, one-quarter upside down, etc., so that there will be no antecedent presumption as to which side of the box is top. Next the performer must decide by inspecting the gems, according to a clew which will hereafter be stated, which side of the box he wants uppermost, and turn it so at once. The arrangement is thus assured. The erect position of the blocks may be attended to at any time after this inspection and decision—the earlier the better; although even if left till the close there will be no uniform prostration, as in the old method, and the inconsistency will be avoided of first setting them erect in one position and afterwards turning them all over and erecting them differently, after the discomfiture of reaching the ill omened 13—15—14.

The philosophy of the clew depends on the law already proved in print, that every time you interchange the places of any two gems—e.g., the 1 and 2—you alter the status of the entire position with reference to the twofold classification alluded to. Two such interchanges balance each other; e.g., if you pick up and exchange not only the 1 and 2 but also the 9 and 10, you produce a position which could have been reached by legitimate lateral shifting. So any even number of interchanges could be made without doing either harm or good; whereas an odd number of them always renders a soluble position insoluble, or an insoluble one

soluble. Now, every conceivable collocation of the gems differs from the uniform arrangement by either an even or an odd number of supposable interchanges. The clew consists in an easy way of counting this number of interchanges, which turns out to be surprisingly small, its maximum being fourteen when all the gems happened to be originally misplaced, thirteen when one of the gems was dropped where it belonged, and so on.

In order to execute this count one must first imagine the block numbered 1, wherever located, to be brought home by being interchanged with that which fills the place of 1 (unless, of course, 1 happens to be at home, of which there is one chance in fifteen). This counts one inversion, and would indicate insolubility (i.e., the need of turning the box), if it were the only interchange needed (i.e., if the other thirteen gems were originally in place). Secondly, imagine the block just displaced by 1 to be put into its own place, thereby forcing the incumbent of that place into the place first occupied by 1. This counts as the second inversion and balances the first, and the record of both may be forgotten, remembering only which figures have been replaced. Proceed thus till all are imagined in place. If the number of inversions required be even, the position in which the box is held will serve. If the number of inversions required be odd, turn the box and then adjust the figures into an upright posture. By turning the box before doing this its legality cannot reasonably be disputed.

In practice several ways will be invented of abridging this effort of imagining. Thus, it often happens that some single inversion will restore to place two gems at once. This will reduce the maximum by one, while if it never happens, the maximum itself will be the critical number sought. Moreover, it is not necessary to rotate the whole box; the rotation of two gems will suffice to reverse the classification, that of the 6 and 9, because by turning these upside down their places are virtually interchanged. The chances are three out of four that one or the other of these two blocks will be originally recumbent, and the performer will be expected to place it upright, and in so doing he can create it a 6 or a 9 as he has decided expedient by the clew, since all the difference lies in one such reversal. If the blocks used are round ones, this transformation of 6 into 9 is further facilitated.

Those who possess a heliotype or other copy of Albert Dürer's "Melencolia," will be interested to observe in it the sixteen puzzle arranged to count thirty-four.—Yours,

G. W. WARREN.

FARMINGTON, CONN., April 20, 1890.

Notes.

THE interesting volume of 'Card Essays, Clay's Decisions and Card-Table Talk,' by "Cavendish," which we reviewed at length not long ago (*Nation*, No. 766), has been reprinted in the "Leisure-Hour Series" of Henry Holt & Co., who have added, as is their wont, an ample topical index, nowhere more necessary than in a book like this, made up of separate essays on different but closely allied topics and abounding in good stories neatly told. All interested in the bibliography of playing-cards should mark the list on pp. 79, 80.—E. P. Dutton & Co. have issued a new edition of Miss Mary L. Booth's 'History of the City of New York,' which first appeared about a dozen years ago. A few pages have been added to bring it up to date. It is distinctly a popular chronicle of events great and small, in which there is neither place nor space for general views.—The Harvard *Library Bulletin* No. 18 begins a Bibliography of Fossil Insects by Samuel H. Scudder.—The second annual report of the Providence Public Library is full of useful suggestions to all who have charge of similar institutions. We will mention particularly the practice of marking on the margins of bibliographical reference works the numbers of such as are to be found in the library; and the steps taken to co-operate with teachers in guiding the reading of pupils in the common schools.—The significant feature of No. 74 of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass., is Prof. Philip Valentini's essay on the MS. known as the "Kakum of Maya History."—Mr. Charles S. Sargent, of Brookline, Mass., Harvard Professor of Arboriculture, has published, in his capacity of Special Agent of the approaching U. S. Census, a 'Catalogue of the Forest Trees of North America,' preliminary to one which will be added to the Census Report on the Forest Wealth of the United States. He desires information concerning (1) the extreme geographical range of any species, (2, 3) the most favorable region and elevation and geological formation for its multiplication and perfection, (4) its exceptionally large dimensions (5) its common or local name addi-

tional to those here catalogued, (6) its uses, however trivial, (7) its products. The Catalogue is adapted for annotations.—The editor of the *Sanitary Engineer* will gladly receive gifts of books, periodicals, etc., intended for the library of the Journeymen Plumbers' Mutual Benefit Society of this city.—Great distress for food prevails in Armenia on account of the operations of the late war. Messrs. Phelps, Stokes & Co., Bankers, 45 Wall Street, will take charge of any contributions that may be made for the sufferers, using the telegraph as a means of immediate transmission to Constantinople.—In response to a request for the address of the National Republican League of Philadelphia we herewith repeat it: No. 913 Walnut Street.—In marked contrast with the compilation of stale misstatements and exploded legends about Molière which appeared in the *Cornhill Magazine* a few months ago is an admirable essay in the April number on "Molière's Acting Manager"—the Lagrange whose register is the most precious of the possessions of the Comédie-Française, saving only the memory of its founder. It is a graceful sketch of the first of "juvenile leads," of *jeunes premiers*, and is well worthy of consideration by all who are interested in Molière and the stage under Louis XIV.—A volume of German plays arranged for children is offered by Bartholomäus, Erfurt. The title is 'Die Deutsche Jugendschaubühne.'—A new work on the American Constitution has been published by Brockhaus. Its author is a Prussian jurist, Eugen Schlieff, and its study is recommended to German lawyers on account of the numerous analogies between the public law of this country and that of Germany.—A monograph on the Venus of Milo has just been published by Winter, at Heidelberg. It is from the pen of Baron Göler von Ravensburg, who, having collected all the evidence about the history of the statue, seems to have no doubt that it is a Venus, and not a Victory.—*Polybiblion* states that a luxurious limited edition has been printed, by M. Armand Baschet, of a hitherto inedited and unknown MS. *mémoire* of Cardinal Richelieu's, written in 1607 or 1610, while he was still Bishop of Luçon, but meditating an appearance at court, against which event he lays down the "traductions et maximes que je me suis données pour me conduire à la Cour." In the same periodical we find mention of a slender *Catalogue raisonné* of M. A.-F. Didot's collection of portraits of the French school, which commends itself to lovers of engraving, and also by its notes to all students of the history of printing.—Messrs. Prang & Co., the Boston publishers, announce through the American Art Gallery of this city the offer of \$2,000 in prizes for four original designs for Christmas cards painted in water-color or oil. The amount is to be divided into four prizes, as follows: \$1,000, \$500, \$300, and \$200 for the first, second, third, and fourth best designs, respectively. Messrs. Samuel Colman, E. C. Moore (the head of the Messrs. Tiffany's silver department), and R. M. Hunt will act as judges, and there will be a public exhibition of the designs. The conditions of competition may be learned from Mr. R. E. Moore, 6 East Twenty-third Street.—Mr. John Fiske, who sails this week for England, will deliver his new lectures on "American Political Ideas" at the Royal Institution in May. Early in June he is to deliver his lectures on "America's Place in History" at the Philosophical Institution in Edinburgh, and they will be repeated later in the same month in Paris, by invitation of MM. Renan, Taine, and others.—Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce that they will issue on May 1 a new monthly periodical of literary news and criticism, to be called the *Dial*.

—Congress has recently ordered the publication of vol. xiv. of the quarto series of the Hayden Survey publications, being the "Final Reports on Zoölogy." This consists of the 'History of North American Mammals,' upon which Dr. Elliott Coues has been engaged for several years. The edition ordered is 5,000 copies, with the necessary illustrations. The work will probably make a volume of some 1,000 pages, fully illustrated with wood engravings in the text and a series of chromolithographic plates. Much of the MS. is ready for the printer, and the appearance of the work will probably not be delayed longer than is required to execute the illustrations, many of which are already on hand. There has been no systematic treatise on this subject since 1857. The third instalment of Dr. Coues's 'Bibliography of Ornithology' is about issuing from the press, in the Proceedings of the National Museum for 1879. The fourth batch of titles, more extensive than the former three combined, is about half printed, forming No. 4 of Vol. v. of the Bulletin of the Hayden Survey.

—Mr. J. O. Halliwell-Phillips writes to the *Athenæum* of April 10 that he contemplates beginning a series of folio volumes in which he will fully investigate "the truth or probability of every recorded incident in the personal and literary history" of Shakspeare, besides introducing "a

vast mass of correlative information, the accumulation of many years' researches; the whole to be copiously illustrated with wood-engravings and fac-similes." The work will not be published by subscription, but for the very limited impression intended he invites what we may call informal expressions of interest in order to judge if the undertaking will be sustained. The following other announcements occur in the same paper: a new work by Mr. Darwin on 'The Circumnutation of Plants'; 'The Life and Correspondence of David Livingstone,' by Prof. Blaikie; 'Madame de Staël,' by Dr. A. Stevens; 'Christian Institutions: Essays on Ecclesiastical Subjects,' by Dean Stanley; 'Siberia in Europe,' by Henry Seebohm; 'Journal of a Naturalist and Botanist in New Guinea,' by Mr. Burridge, of Trinity College, Dublin; 'A Ride from Fez to the Algerian Frontier,' by Capt. Colville; 'Col. Grodekoff's Ride from Samarcand to Herat'; and 'Rambles among the Hills,' walks from Petersfield to Beachy Head, by Louis J. Jennings. The widow of the late Mr. MacGahan, a Russian lady, has translated Poe's stories and poems into her native language, and the work will shortly appear in three volumes.

—A waggish reporter of the Nashville *American* lately brought that paper intelligence from the Tennessee Bureau of Agriculture, Statistics, and Mines, to the effect that "the editor of the *Nation*, published in New York," had just written to the Bureau "with a view to establishing a sheep ranch on the mountains." We have in consequence been made the recipients of several interested and disinterested communications, for which we are under obligations that we can hardly express.

—At the last meeting of the National Academy of Sciences, held in Washington, April 20-23, Major J. W. Powell and Prof. W. H. Brewer were elected members. As their election raised the membership to one hundred no others were admitted. The Academy then considered and passed the amendment respecting elections which provides that in case the election of any candidate would raise the number above one hundred a four-fifths vote will be requisite to elect. This will have practically the effect of restricting membership to the number stated. There was a fair attendance at the meeting, and the usual number of papers were read. Prof. W. B. Rogers, the newly-elected president, occupied the chair. Prof. Newcomb's memorial of Prof. Henry was not read by himself, owing to his absence on account of sickness.

—Mr. Stedman's study of Poe in the May *Scribner's*, like his estimate of Bayard Taylor in a previous number, shows a critical faculty of a high order. In the present instance it is put to a severer test because of the extremes of admiration and detraction to which Poe's memory, as well as his life, has been exposed. Mr. Stedman imports no new bitterness into the controversy. His charity, added to his tact in applying the tests of genius, will betray the worshipper into feelings of gratitude for what is, after all, a reinforcement of the saner judgment of Poe's rank in literature. This judgment is strengthened, to our mind, by some of Mr. Stedman's examples of what he deems most admirable in Poe's prose and verse—unconscious concessions, we are sure, to a lower standard than that which controls the article taken as a whole. Mr. John Burroughs continues his "Notes of a Walker" with his usual acceptability, dividing his attention between the botanical anachronisms of the New England poets and the peripatetic habits of our common, though not indigenous, weeds. The modern method of "overlaying" is graphically explained by Mr. De Vinne in his second paper on the "Growth of Wood-Cut Printing"; we only wish he had chosen for the purpose a better and more interesting engraving. The illustrated articles include "The Younger Painters of America," namely, the members of the Society of American Artists; Mr. Schuyler's "Peter the Great," "The New York Seventh," and the "Dominion of Canada." We must also allude to the full-page portrait engraved by Cole, after a daguerreotype of Poe taken late in life; perhaps no better will ever be made. It serves as a frontispiece to the number.

—A writer on "The Present Crisis in San Francisco" in the *Californian* for May draws a depressing picture of the state of public and private affairs there. In 1879, he says, the banking capital and deposits of the city were reduced twenty-three millions of dollars; loans on mortgages fell from twenty-four millions in 1877 to fifteen millions in 1878, and to nine and a half millions in 1879. Capitalists as well as capital, are coming East in disgust. "No new enterprises are being undertaken. Old ones are winding up or curtailing their business." Ten banks have failed or been discontinued. Money is more abundant than ever for loans on positive security, but the slightest risk frightens it. Real estate everywhere is unsalable. There is little or no building. There is an army of "unemployed" who "parade the streets by hundreds demanding

work or bread." The hatred of the poor for the well-to-do is intense and universal, and is returned in kind and with the interest of fear. "We hear of military companies, perhaps regiments, organized and drilling to fight for they know not what." The causes of this "epileptic condition" are, in the writer's view, far from superficial and obvious. The talk about Kearneyism is vague, he thinks; "Kearney is but the exponent of a state of public feeling, the outcropping of the ledge that has for years been crystallizing beneath the surface." The notion that if he and a few of his followers were quieted agitation would cease, is characterized as shallow and mistaken, and those who hold it as forgetful of the fact that the new constitution "proclaims to the world that unlimited freedom of acquisition is here recognized as an evil, to be curbed by the strong arm of the law." The effect upon capital is natural. Moreover, mining stocks have shrunk prodigiously. The Chinese have monopolized "all branches of labor by which the poor could live." The railroads have bound commerce with bands of iron; and they are by no means the only "grinding monopoly." Among the people there is no traditional conservatism—"no leading citizen of California was born in the State"; there is no feeling of State or city pride, no leisure class, a great isolation among the individuals of the higher social class, a great indifference to politics and public measures, and "a great difficulty in the formation of public opinion on any subject." To crown all, the press is ignorant and dishonest. The only consolation is that the very chaos that reigns is a source of security against riot and serious public disturbance. "Who is there to fight against?" asks the writer. Apropos of the press, we have received the first number of the *American Patriot*, bearing date of San Francisco, April 15, and having for a motto: "Put none but Americans on Guard—George Washington," which advocates a Know-Nothing party and the election of Grant, is very severe upon "the infernal hell-hounds whom Europe sends to our Sand-lots," and enquires how long "the United States is to continue to be the world's charnel-house."

—By way of popular initiative in the much-talked-of reform in English spelling the *Home Journal* adopted last September five simple rules: 1. To drop *ue* at the end of words like "pedagogue" where the preceding vowel is short, and retain it in those like "rogue" where the vowel is long. 2. To drop the final *e* in words like "hypocrite" with a preceding short vowel, and retain it in words like "polite." 3. To drop the final *te* in words like cigarette. 4. To drop the final *me* in words like "programme." 5. To change *ph* for *f* in words like "alphabet." A post-script added "no change in proper names," British prejudice in favor of Cholmondeley being respected, perhaps. The issue of April 14 chronicles the success of the experiment. No one "from Maine to California," it says, has written to "stop my paper" or "stop that new spelling." Indeed, Prof. C. H. Hitchcock writes, "I have cut out the *Home Journal's* rules and keep them by me with the purpose of following them in all communications which I write," and a page of the number is devoted to a broadside of commendation more or less thoroughgoing, and suggestions of further changes from different educators of prominence; Western professors generally evincing enthusiasm, we observe, and a more guarded approval coming from Eastern colleges. The tone of the latter is illustrated by the note from Dr. Holmes, who promises to fall into line "when the *London Times* gives in." Professor Raymond, of Williams, author of 'Ideals Made Real,' urges the reform as an aid to the spread of intelligence in the masses. Dr. S. Wells Williams, Professor of Chinese at Yale, argues that an improved orthography will aid "millions on millions of Asiatics who are now learning the language, and are to learn it in the future, as the storehouse of the best literature in every branch of human knowledge which they can reach"; and various men of weight dwell upon the economy of time and money that will ensue. Some one has calculated that the silent letters cost the country annually more than the interest on the national debt; but in these economic questions it may be said that no money is lost till the calculation is made. The longest letter is from President Barnard, of Columbia, written with extreme attention to phonetic spelling, the effect of which will be to recall Yellowplush to the flippant. The evil possibilities of English orthography are shown by twenty-two different ways of spelling "The Home Journal" justified by existing idiosyncrasies. But the objection to every editor laying down rules of his own for the reformed orthography seems to us so irresistible that we are amazed that none of the *Home Journal's* correspondents pointed it out.

—In a long article in *Nature* of March 18, 1880, entitled "The Barometric See-saw between Russia and India in the Sun-spot Cycle," a certain phenomenon is still regarded as mysterious which was explained in the

Nation so long ago as June 19, 1873. This phenomenon is the coincidence of high pressure with high temperature. It is becoming well known that every ten years occurs a period of a year or two during which few or no spots are observed upon the sun, and that these years are characterized by higher pressure and less frequent rain. The article states that "this condition of excessive pressure lasted not less than two years in the Indian region, having set in between May and August, 1876, and continued to between May and August, 1878, after which the pressure was as persistently below the average as it had exceeded it during the period in question. It included two years of serious failure of the rains. This condition of excessive pressure prevailed over not only the Indo-Malayan region but also the greater part if not the whole of Asia, probably the whole of Australia, and the South Indian Ocean." Now, that the effacement from the sun's disc of dark spots should produce increase of solar radiation, and consequently of heat, is natural; and that this increase of heat should enlarge the capacity of the atmosphere for moisture, and therefore hinder precipitation, is also obvious. But that the same cause should increase the pressure measured by the barometer is a surprise to those who have made the mistake of assuming that a high thermometer produces a low pressure. And the scope of these observations is as wide as is the theory which they corroborate (the theory stated in No. 416 of the *Nation*), for the continent of Asia comprises the bulk of the land part of the globe, so that, since observations taken on shipboard are worse than worthless as data for general comparison, what is true of Asia may be attributed to the whole world. Attention is thus called to the combination of high thermometer with high barometer as something as universal as unexpected. But it need not have been unexpected. The reason why heat usually coincides with low pressure throughout the forward half of cyclonic areas is one which is very limited in both time and place. The heat and lightness are symptomatic of an ascending current caused by a corresponding descending current not far off, in which both temperature and pressure reverse those of the cyclone and so completely compensate for them that the entire group has no effect upon the world-average; a cyclone is narrow in proportion to its intensity, being often occasioned by a conical mountain or circular island, and may therefore be discarded from wide investigations. Yet its brevity makes it easy to observe, and accounts for the prevalence of the false hypothesis that cold raises the barometer. The reverse is the fact, as was stated and explained in these columns, as above said, seven years ago.

—We will repeat the part that applies. The total weight of the earth's atmosphere is always the same; and therefore the aggregate of all barometric records would be equally invariable if the barometer were, what its name indicates, a measurer of weight simply; but the fact is that it measures also another phenomenon utterly different from weight, viz., the tension or elasticity of the air; and this last factor is not at all invariable, for it conforms sensitively to the solar radiation, increasing while radiation increases—i. e., while the increase of temperature is gaining in velocity as well as in amount—diminishing as soon as the increase of temperature slackens in velocity. It is, therefore, only as concerns a local disturbance that the thirty-inch column of mercury is a weight-measurer (barometer); for wider observation it ought rather to be called a tension-measurer (tathometer?), or even a prophetic thermometer, since the most rapid increase of heat precedes the greatest amount of heat; hence, the familiar forenoon barometric maximum, and hence, also, the reason that the decennial excess of pressure coincides with the causative period of sun-spot minimum, rather than with the period of excessive heat, which lags behind the same minimum because time is required for this excess to produce its effects upon the absorbent portion of the earth's surface, which is also its largest portion. The reasons for the apparent "see-saw" at St. Petersburg (and also in France, as mentioned in a supplementary note), which forms the caption of the article in *Nature*, were given in the *Nation* for December 26, 1872.

—The April number of *Le Livre* gives the total proceeds of the sale of the first part of the Comte de Béthune's library as \$126,962 (the second part began to be sold on Monday the 19th inst.) The highest price obtained for any single volume was \$3,520, a rare Elzevir of 1651, bound by Trutz-Bauzonnet. Mention is made, in the Notes, of a newly-patented adjustable pasteboard envelope for books, bound or unbound, which one desires to read out of doors or while journeying. This contrivance may be had of M. C.-E. Marc, rue de l'Échiquier. The most interesting announcement, however, is that a photographic atelier has just been installed in the National Library as a permanent adjunct of the institution. Its occupation will consist in reproducing unique works now

withheld from general circulation and liable to injury even from careful use. Unhappily the number of copies will be limited, and the plates (*épreuves*) will be destroyed. None of the impressions will be for sale, but a few *épreuves* may be sent to provincial libraries or museums. If the French were more accustomed to international co-operation in such matters, we are sure a more generous policy would have been initiated. All the great libraries of the world would be glad to contribute to the support of the atelier in return for the privilege of sharing in the reproductions. Besides, what an opportunity is now afforded for that international cataloguing by title-page fac-similes proposed by Mr. Henry Stevens. Some of our libraries have found their account in having binderies of their own as a part of their regular service. The photographer, we are sure, will not long be thought dispensable. One of his functions might be the furnishing of negatives of portraits, maps, etc., from works not easily accessible, and of course at the expense of the applicant.

—A Pesth correspondent of the *Deutsches Montagsblatt* has had a glimpse at Kossuth's memoirs, which were to have appeared in April, but which may not now come out till June. They are to be published in Hungarian, German, and English; and the translations, especially the German, are the cause of the delay. When it became known that the author had permitted himself to speak of the reigning family in highly uncomplimentary terms, the German publisher was given to understand that if the work appeared as written its circulation would be forbidden. In consequence of this a thorough revision was necessary. Except to the writer's countrymen and to students of European diplomacy the memoirs seem to offer little of interest, for they do not deal with the period of Kossuth's practical activity, but only with his years of exile and conspiracy, beginning with 1859. The first volume describes the doings of the Hungarian exiles before the peace of Villa Franca, narrating in detail the author's intercourse with Prince Napoleon and the late Emperor, and the steps taken to prepare a rising in Hungary while the Austrians were busy in Italy, the fear of which, as is well known, was the cause of the readiness with which Francis Joseph accepted the French terms of peace. The second volume is devoted to the events which occurred between the peace and the meeting of the Hungarian parliament in 1861, especially to an abortive treaty between the exiles and Cavour. The third volume is concerned with the Eastern Question, and is said to contain some interesting disclosures about the Crimean war.

—In a leading article of the *Rassegna Settimanale*, for March 28, we find the following picture of the present condition of parliamentary government in Italy. Referring to the two political parties, it says:

"The country is beginning to put little faith in either, and, what is worse, in the very institutions themselves, of which it will judge by their fruits. It does not feel that it is really represented by the Government, in its strength any more than in the consciousness of its wants; it does not feel itself guided or supported; knowing its own malady, it sees no one in the Government (and we say *government* in the broadest sense of the word) who can point out the efficacious remedy; it sees a confused parliamentary scrimmage consisting either in the clashing of sordid personal interests or in empty contests that have nothing to do with the reality of things, and that lose themselves in pedantic futilities passing under the name of political questions. And outside of all this is the desolating reality of local misgovernment; the collapse of all the better elements of the bureaucratic machine; the growth of parliamentarism with all its following of patronage and corruption; the neglect of the nation's most vital public interests, which are deferred to foolish personal or party questions; the oppression of class by class; the squandering of the patrimony of the poor; the disproportion of taxes bearing upon the less well-to-do classes; the inequality, in fact, of the various ranks of citizens before the law and justice; the increase of crime; the absence of protection to women and children in mines and workshops; and the crowds of peasants driven to distant lands by usury and oppression. Such is the sad reality which the country presents to our gaze; but the great political parties and Italian statesmen have something else to do than to occupy themselves with such questions at present."

SAYCE ON THE SCIENCE OF LANGUAGE.*

PROFESSOR SAYCE is most widely and favorably known as an Assyrian scholar, being ranked by common consent among the foremost of those who are devoting themselves to the study of the cuneiform writing and the languages and literatures recorded in it. But his interests and sympathies are limited to no single department of philology; he is a frequent and acceptable correspondent of the leading English literary journals; his name is prominent on the list of friends of the spelling

reform, and he occupies the chair of comparative philology at Oxford during the absorption of Prof. Max Müller in the task of editing and publishing translations of the 'Sacred Books of the East.' He has already produced (in 1874) a brief treatise on linguistics, entitled 'Principles of Comparative Philology'; the present is a much more ambitious work, of over 800 octavo pages. Coming as this does after so many predecessors, of more or less merit, we are entitled to expect a good deal from it. Twenty or thirty years ago any one of wide reading and some pretension to learning might have felt justified in stringing together his loose observations on language for the benefit of persons less instructed; now that can no longer be tolerated: we require clearness and consistency of views, distinctness of statement, coherence of argument, and absence of fantastic and futile explanations of familiar facts, as well as additions to knowledge on the various subjects treated.

One cannot, however, turn over Mr. Sayce's volumes even in the most cursory manner without lighting here and there upon sentences or paragraphs which seem to disregard all these reasonable requirements, and which provoke a smile, if nothing worse. Thus, for example, in the chapter on "Phonology and Sematology" (i. 226-263) we are told that when audible vibrations succeed one another at irregular intervals "we have what is called a noise—a source of constant delight to the savage and the infant, but exceedingly painful to the sensitive ear." Again: "It needs but a short experience to discover the numberless varieties of voice that may exist, and it is not uncommon for a blind man by this means not only to distinguish the age and sex of those he meets, but even to recognize his friends." Are we all blind, then? or has the author dimly floating before his mind what he has heard or read of the blind man's acuteness of touch? Pitch, we are told, may be detected even in a whispered vowel; any one can readily convince himself of the contrary. The *o* in *fa her* is called "obscure," and said to constrain the position of the tongue more than any other vowel; though it is almost immediately added that *i* and *u* require a stronger effort of articulation. A vowel is thus lucidly defined: it "is the quality or timbre of voice as modified by the tongue and lips, and consists of the forms assumed by the vibrating air as it passes through the windpipe and vocal chords." The difference between an "affricative" like *pf* and a true aspirate like *pʰ* is explained to be that in the former a spirant is preceded by an explosive, while in the latter the spirant follows the explosive (i. 270). "If we try to converse while walking uphill we shall find that the nasals are longest heard." On one page "the laws of phonology are as undeviating in their action as the laws of physical science"; on another, the occurrence of phonetic changes "is more or less sporadic and arbitrary—that is to say, they may act upon one word and not upon its neighbor." The phonograph is highly praised as having "contributed some facts of importance to phonetic science; thus, we find that all sounds may be reproduced backwards by simply beginning with the last forms indented on the tin-foil, sociability, for example, becoming *ytilibaishos*"—and, we may add, *ab* becoming *bā*; all honor to the phonograph! Silly "is simply the German *selig*, 'blessed,' and such is still its meaning in Spenser's *silly sheep*"—and this blundering discovery, which might have been corrected out of any dictionary, is regarded by the author with so much complacency that he repeats it in two or three other places.

We have plucked these flowers, in passing, from a single bed, and there are a plenty more like them for others to gather. In the next locality the varying position of the genitive—before its governing noun in Aryan, after it in Semitic—is thus accounted for: "The Aryan, the inventor of induction and the scientific method, fixes his first attention on the phenomenon and traces it up to its source; the Semite, on the other hand, makes the first cause his starting point, and derives therefrom with easy assurance all the varying phenomena that surround him." With equally startling profundity, the absence of compound words in Semitic is traced to the fact that "with the Semite the universe is an undivided whole, not a compound resolvable into its parts" (ii. 176). But the distinction of the *ego* and *non-ego* is our author's favorite metaphysical criterion in language, and is applied by him to explain a great variety of things. Thus, grammatical gender arises because "the primitive Aryan had not yet distinguished the object thought of from the subject that thought of it," and so endowed the universe with his own sexuality (i. 406). It would seem, however, to follow from this that by the he-Aryan everything should have been regarded as masculine, and by the she-Aryan as feminine; if he, for example, used both genders, he must have recognized at least two subjects, himself and his wife. Further, he added a neuter gender to his masculine and feminine when he "awoke to the consciousness that he was essentially different from the objects

* Introduction to the Science of Language. By A. H. Sayce, Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Oxford. In two volumes. Crown 8vo, pp. viii.-441, 421. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1880.

about him [and his wife]"; whence we must conclude that the "Semites and some other races," who remained contented with only two genders, never gained such consciousness, and also that it has been lost by the modern Frenchman. An additional result was the formation of the passive voice, and of a nominative to the first personal pronoun (both of which, as it happens, the Semites have also perversely acquired); for *ego* is far later than *me*, and marks the epoch when the "me" became an "I." As if the recognition of individuality were any less involved in *me* than in *I*! Yet further, the conception of duality is attained by means of the mind's coming "to distinguish between itself and that which is outside itself; to realize, in fact, that it has an individual existence distinct from that of some one else"; whence the priority (in our author's opinion) of the dual number everywhere to the plural, and the circumstance that some races can count two but not three. Once more, the Romans said *curro*, without a distinct expression of the personal actor, such as is made in our *I am running*, because they had no clear idea of any distinction between themselves and the objects around them (i. 122); and yet they had three genders!

It is needless to point out how empty, as well as confused, all this is. The modern philosopher, not the primitive man, is the one to feel embarrassed about the distinction of himself from the universe. Language is the expression of the homely common-sense of mankind, not of the absolute verity of things. Every act of nomenclature, from the beginning down, implies a recognition of the actuality and separateness of existences. Even a dog over a bone has an apprehension of *meum* and *tuum* clear enough to found at least a dual number on, if not also an *I* and *thou*. The mule, when he lets fly his heels, manages always to hit some fellow-being, and is said by those who know him best to betray a malicious enjoyment of the difference of kicker and kickee. That the language-makers did not realize all that was involved in the distinction of subject and object is true enough, but neither do the language-users now. The plain man, of every race, doubts the multiplicity of beings just as little as he doubts his own being; the developed sage attains to an apprehension of duality by discovering that the whole external universe is only a reflection in the mirror of self; and when he comes to perceive that he has no assurance of any reality in the object of this reflection, he has thrown off the shackles of numbers and persons, and is ready for his *nirvana*. So long, however, as he lingers in existence, he has to submit to say *we* and *you* and *they*; the common-sense of humanity as embodied in language is too strong for him to resist.

The most peculiar and conspicuous doctrine put forward in this work by Professor Sayce, perhaps, is that of the primitiveness of the sentence as distinguished from the word: the initial germs of speech, he asserts, were sentences; a sentence is not everywhere made up by putting words together, but words are the *dissecta membra* of sentences that have gone to pieces. Not that he holds the doctrine clearly and consistently, making it the basis of his history of language; that is not his way: he rather puts it forward persistently, every here and there, denouncing at the same time the opposing view, of the originality of roots, now prevailingly held by students of language. And then in other passages he seems to be himself a pronounced radical: he declares that roots are the barrier beyond which lies inarticulate speech, regards words as derived from radicals, holds it to be true that articulate language begins with roots, calls it a primary law that language is based on roots, believes roots the best representatives we can obtain of the vocabulary of primitive man, and so on; even the Hindu grammarians (from whom he most erroneously conceives the doctrine of roots to be servilely borrowed) could hardly go further than this. Indeed, we have found it wholly impossible to arrive at any distinct understanding of what he really believes: what, to his mind, is the difference between a root, a word, and a sentence. When treating of the origin of language out of gestures and imitative and exclamatory utterances, he points out (i. 111) that thus "in course of time a collection of words would be formed, each of which represented what we now call a sentence." This is precisely the true view; the first speech-products of men were the equivalents of the later sentences, because they were used to signify what we now signify more completely by sentences; but they were words, because they were unitary utterances, not divisible into parts of which one could be used alone to intimate one thing and another to intimate another; and they were roots, because they contained no expression of grammatical relation—for that, although Mr. Sayce cannot be made to see it, is all that is meant by a root. They were sentences in the same way as a clap of the hands or the exclamation *hi!* is a sentence, and a gesture of beckoning is another; for these mean 'I want you to pay attention to me,' and 'I want you to come straight here'; but between and in the

transformation of the former of these modes of expression into the latter lies the whole historical development of speech. But Mr. Sayce proceeds immediately to draw the inference that "language begins with sentences, not with single words"; and he adds that "the latter exist only for the lexicographer, and even the lexicographer has to turn them into sentences by affixing a definition if he would render them intelligible." It appears, then, for example, that *ale* is the fiction of a dictionary-maker; but "*a-l-e*, malt liquor" is a sentence, and intelligible! And on the next page we are told that to break up a sentence like *don't do that* into the four words *do-not-do-that* is grammarian's work, and analogous to analyzing a word into the several sounds that compose it; that is, we may add, to take an arrow apart into shaft and plume and flint-head is, as regards the history of the implement, a process of the same character as analyzing the flint into its chemical constituents. The illustration, moreover, would seem to show that our author does not regard sentences as having even yet really fallen apart into words. He talks elsewhere of "sentence-words," a conveniently indefinite compromise, and ventures only to assert (ii. 13) that in primitive language they were at least dissyllabic; so that their dissection into words cannot have been a very fertile process of production. As he holds that roots also were in general dissyllabic, the question comes up again what he can possibly mean by root and word and sentence-word and sentence. If he had ever asked himself that question and answered it, he would hardly be able to maintain (as he does in sundry places: e.g., ii. 216) that the polysynthetic American-Indian sentence is the nearest surviving approach to the structure of primitive speech.

We will only add further, as having a possible bearing on this doctrine, that our author has discovered, he does not tell us how, a most important fact in the history of language: it "was not created until the several types of race had been fully fixed and determined," and man "had passed from the merely gregarious stage of existence into that of settled communities" (ii. 318-324). He holds (apparently following Müller) that the earth had become pretty fully peopled with mutes, when at last, the fullness of time being come, perhaps at a given signal, they all began to speak, in "dialects," and the dialects began to combine into languages. Perhaps, as they had been holding in so long, it was natural that they should burst out into sentences—a fully-equipped Minerva starting at once from each brain.

We have done this work no injustice as a whole by the extracts we have made from it. It is all of a piece. If its mutually hostile half-views were allowed to cancel one another, its whole foundation of linguistic philosophy would drop out from under it. We know not where to point out in it any doctrine that is clearly apprehended, distinctly put forth, and consistently maintained. Such a work stands in no definable relation to a science of language, even as "introduction."

The index, for which the author acknowledges his indebtedness to a 'prentice hand, is made without the faintest conception of what an index should be, and is unusable for any good purpose.

DOBSON'S VIGNETTES IN RHYME.*

MR. DOBSON has made up this American edition of his verses mainly from his 'Vignettes in Rhyme,' published in 1873, and his 'Proverbs in Porcelain,' which appeared three years ago. They are, most of them, still fresh in the memory of those who then made their acquaintance—for to know Mr. Dobson's verses is to be impressed by their quality—but an American volume will undoubtedly introduce him to many new admirers. The book is dedicated to Dr. Holmes, "a couple of words" from whom once made the author "very proud and happy," and is prefaced with an introduction by Mr. Stedman, which, we should think, would have a similar effect. This latter is very prettily written, and the attentive reader will find it considerably more than a graceful literary compliment full of tact and courtesy—if not a close or comprehensive criticism, at least a suggestive characterization with which as a guide no person of perception can go wrong. Mr. Dobson, indeed, is a very plain case; it is impossible not to recognize his qualities readily, and they are so distinct that, if Mr. Stedman be exact in saying that "it is hard to define his limitations, for he has not yet gone beyond them," it is still possible to divine what these must be. It is perhaps Mr. Dobson's chief merit that he carefully avoids demonstration of them.

In this respect he is, in fact, almost unique among those of his contemporaries who write English verse. He is his own academy, as it were, and subscribes as carefully to the canons which he has apparently accepted

* 'Vignettes in Rhyme, and Other Verses. By Austin Dobson.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880.

for himself as if these were imposed by some high court of literature of recognized authority. The lack of any such tribunal in literary matters, or, which is much the same thing, the absence of an educated and fastidious public opinion, has been a subject of congratulation rather than regret to many Anglo-Saxon writers. "We manage these things better in England," said Macaulay, speaking of the whimsical length to which separating the romance and the philosophy of history had been carried in France—that is to say, let them manage themselves. And whatever the effect upon English prose of allowing it to take care of itself, it has generally been admitted that English poetry would never have been the noble, the unrivalled, thing it is if the genius which has produced it were not allowed, as the most insistent advocate of academic influence puts it, "entire independence of all authority, prescription, and routine—the fullest room to expand as it will." At the same time, when we happen upon an English poet who, in spite of the extreme tolerance exercised by his public towards the freaks and extravagances not only of genius but of the most moderate talent, exhibits the reserve, the measure, the order which are in general the product of exterior influences, there are few of us probably who do not greet them with equal satisfaction and surprise. Mr. Dobson's verse is of this sort, and it not only in itself displays a fine regard for form, but discloses in him a mental attitude that at once bespeaks confidence in its sanity and intelligence. One feels sure that he will attempt nothing he cannot do well, and has a sense of security like that stimulated by the performance of a very skilful pianist. It is this, perhaps, that mainly distinguishes him from the various versifiers with whom it has been usual to associate him. You may be certain beforehand of being interested in whatever he writes to a degree not quite attainable in the instances, say, of Mr. Gosse or Mr. Locker. Indeed it is this superiority which entitles him to consideration among indisputably greater poets than himself—poets of passion like Mr. Swinburne, or of exalted sentiment like Mrs. Browning. It is quite impossible to fancy him either so uncertain about the one thing it behoves him to do with his might as to divide his force between poetry and wall-paper designs like Mr. Morris, or poetry and painting like Mr. Rossetti. And the cause of this impression is undoubtedly the strict obedience which his effort pays to his genius. His work is as natural an outgrowth as that of Lamb.

This is perhaps the more remarkable in view of the range and flexibility of his expression; it is rarely that facility of workmanship fails to lead a clever man beyond the just confines of his appointed work. But Mr. Dobson is rendered impervious to temptation of this sort by the sincere and loving respect he has for his real function. This, we take it, is to dignify as well as decorate the trifles light as air which a delicate and poetic sensibility discerns in what to grosser perceptions is paltry or prosaic. As one remembers how the Syracusan artist from generation to generation rested content with minute and scarcely visible variations in refining upon a numismatic design centuries old, it is possible to see how distinct this is from dilettanteism, and how genuine a thing fastidiousness in fine-art may be.

"All passes. All alone
Enduring stays to us;
The Bust outlasts the throne,
The Coln, Tiberius."

Mr. Dobson sings in imitation of Gautier; and if the fine-art of the Victorian age should prove enduring, it will owe its permanence in due proportion to such unaffected daintiness as Mr. Dobson's as well as to the monuments of greater masters. How unaffected and simple this easily satirized quality may be, a score of poems in this volume testify. They are all pervaded by a freshness that is almost breezy. In none of them do we meet anything that touches sentimentality; indeed, in this respect they have an almost tonic property. The things that strike him as fit subjects for his caressing elaboration are common characters, ordinary incidents, homely dramas, a love-letter, a lovers' quarrel, a beloved curé's morning walk down his village street, "An Old Fish-pond," "At the Convent Gate," "My Landlady," "Before Sedan," and so on; not unlike the subjects that Thackeray's nice sense of the literary proprieties celebrated in his 'Ballads.' To his keen scent for the aroma of old-fashioned elegance with the result of an exquisite rehabilitation, as it were, of eighteenth-century courtliness and quaintness Mr. Stedman has called attention in his introduction, having evident sympathy for "a feeling of to-day that dallies with the fragments of the past," as he puts it. And the reader will find a pretty and real consistency between the genuine feeling with which such pure matters of taste as bric-à-brac and toilets are treated, and the taste on the other hand which elevates the treatment of more homely themes; it indicates a poise of mind and a just balance of artistic temperament better, perhaps, than any other of Mr. Dobson's

characteristics can. As to the workmanship in which these qualities are disclosed, it follows naturally that it is of an instinctive propriety, and that between the form and the thought there is that interdependence concerning which no laws can be laid down and no instructions given, but which is always quite as unmistakable as if it were more definite and not the less delightful for being in a sort impalpable. That deft touch beneath which the object or the idea seems to unfold and expand of itself, Mr. Dobson was born to; indeed, if we were to indicate the most individual trait of his handiwork, his technique, we should point to the admirable combination of ease and elaboration in virtue of which his verse seems to have been conceived as it was written. For the technical erudition which it displays, and which it nevertheless carries with a grace unknown to pedantry, we confess to an unprofessional disregard. It is pleasant to see "a fine poet at play," as Mr. Stedman says; but his remark that for Mr. Dobson's popularization of old French stanzaic and rhythmic forms he is not "sure whether to thank him or to condole with him," is a qualification with which we quite agree. In general it is not a poet's "experiments" that we like best in his work; however successful they may be, one reflects that a good deal of poetic force is expended in refitting the foreign garb, and that we can afford to lose none of it if the poet be really competent for the task.

Nothing in what we have said, it should be borne in mind, implies that Mr. Dobson can be called other than distinctly a minor poet. Indeed, the traits which are noticeable in him involve this inevitably. He has not only "not yet gone beyond his limitations," but the adaptedness of his work to his genius and, as we say, his uncompelled restriction of himself, are so evident that the natural induction is trustworthy; no one, it may almost be said, can do a thing as well as Mr. Dobson does the "thing" he has spontaneously chosen, and do so well anything else. Upon the plane next above that of his poetry a whirl of emotions, a drama of ideas, is going on of which he takes no note. It would be difficult to imagine Burns writing *vers de société*. Thackeray's ballads are excellent, not only in humor and sentiment, but in skill and fancy; but there is something amateurish and playful about them, as if even the gravest were not quite serious intellectually. Mr. Dobson is *par excellence* the writer of *vers de société*; Thackeray would cheerfully have "knocked under" to him; and better, probably, than another he appreciates that for his dainty Muse heroics of any kind are unmeet offerings. "Marrow" and "pith" and "significance" are unfamiliar terms in the domain over which she presides, as they are the unfailing elements of great poetry—so unfailing that many English-speaking people, at all events, are accustomed to measure *all* poetry by their presence or absence, real or fancied. To demonstrate that there is such a thing as minor poetry, that it has to do with very real and genuine, if not very profound or passionate, emotions, and that its art has possibilities of exquisiteness as truly inartificial as the grand style itself, and to do this as blithely and winningly as Mr. Dobson does it, is a service which we are inclined to regard as just now a substantial one—quite as substantial as the popularization of exotic versification.

FREEMAN'S HISTORICAL ESSAYS.*

MR. FREEMAN is the historian of continuity in history. He has made it his business for years to teach that there is unity in all history, that every age is connected with all ages before it by an uninterrupted line of filiation. This lesson he has taught so well that it will never need to be taught again; and if we look back twenty years to the manner in which history was regarded before he began to be listened to, we must confess that probably no writer has ever worked so great a change as he in the historical theories of a generation. The theory of *cataclysms* in history will probably never again regain its old influence.

And nevertheless one cannot but think that, like all ardent reformers, he has pushed his theory to an extreme. Cataclysms in geology were disposed of by Sir Charles Lyell; but, nevertheless, we are told that the theory of gradual changes is found not to work in all points. Just so in history. Nobody will ever again pretend that English history—as a different thing from Anglo-Saxon history—begins with the Norman Conquest. So far we all accept Mr. Freeman's teachings; but very few have been willing to go with him to the point of utterly discarding the term Anglo-Saxon, as if the Norman Conquest were no more of an epoch than the Revolution of 1688. Again, take the assertion that ancient and

* Historical Essays. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A., Hon. D.C.L. and LL.D., late fellow of Trinity College, Oxford; honorary member of the Imperial University of St. Petersburg. Third series. 8vo, pp. 476. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.

modern history only form at bottom one sequence: it is very true, as shown on page 249 of these essays, that any particular date we may select to divide these periods must be arbitrary and misleading; but, after all, how every other ground of distinction fades into insignificance by the side of that fact which is the most fundamental one of modern history—Christianity; or that other most fundamental one of mediæval history—the unity of the Church. The Byzantine Empire, with Byzantine civilization, was a piece of antiquity projected down into modern times; but, being Christian, it was not a piece of pure antiquity. Mr. Freeman says, in his graphic way: “The knights who fought at Wakefield and Towton might, if they had pleased, have fought, like the Warangians, two centuries and a half earlier, for the throne of Constantine and Augustus.” But why would they have fought? For their common Christianity. In virtue of this, they belonged alike to the fifteenth century. The knights of Wakefield and Towton would not have fought for the throne of Constantine and Augustus—“What was Hecuba to them or they to Hecuba?”—nor for the administrative system and theory of empire that had come down from old Rome; but for the cross of Christ and the church of St. Sophia, in virtue of which the Constantinopolitans were as much moderns as themselves. So with that most remarkable and significant example of continuity in history, the Roman Empire; it was not, after all, the Roman Empire of Augustus and Trajan, it was the *Holy Roman Empire*, and in that word there lies a world of difference.

This disposition to overestimate the unity of history is well illustrated on page 296, where Mr. Freeman protests, in its name, against the destruction of the mediæval tower at the Propylæa of Athens, in the interest of classical associations—this tower “proclaimed to all men,” he says, “that Athens was not wiped out of the history of mankind when she yielded to Philip or to Antipatros.” Mr. Finlay has done a good work in teaching us this truth, and Mr. Freeman in emphasizing it; but, after all, are not the two hundred and fifty years from Solon to Demosthenes worth all the rest of Athenian history? What history is worth to us is found in just that year or act or character or century in which a nation or a man does something which mankind does not suffer to be forgotten. As to this particular case of the destruction of the mediæval tower, we express no opinion; but we are very sure that all the real dukes of Athens in history can be well spared for Shakspeare’s fictitious one.

All this has nothing to do with Mr. Freeman’s new series of essays; and we are glad enough, however we may take exceptions to the overstraining of the theory, to have so excellent a connecting link between ancient and modern history, so eloquent a teacher of the unity of history, as this book. For that is its special purpose. Mr. Freeman’s first series treated of modern, or rather the later mediæval, history; the second went back to classical times; the present series, we read in the preface, “is meant to illustrate some periods of history which lie between the periods which were illustrated in the two earlier series.” And perhaps in no portion of his varied labors has he touched upon points so generally unfamiliar as in this volume. Almost every one of these essays opened, when it first appeared, a view which was on the whole novel and almost paradoxical to the reading public. It is not that the facts and points of view were in themselves new, but they were new to his readers—nay, new to students of history as a class, whose attention had for the most part been confined to classical antiquity and the nations of Western Europe. When, therefore, Mr. Freeman began to talk of the Illyrian emperors and the Byzantine Empire, it came as a new revelation to readers of Gibbon that there was anything worth studying and admiring in those degenerate times. The articles upon Treves, Ravenna, Palermo, and the Southern Slavs had very much the same novelty and surprise.

The articles in this volume fall into two groups—Mr. Freeman says three, but the third group consists of only two essays, and two do not make a group anywhere but in a college-yard; we prefer, therefore, to regard the two Sicilian essays as additions. They are as interesting and suggestive as any; intended, he says, to insist “on the true historic character of Sicily, first, as what its geographical position made it—the general meeting-place of all the nations round the Mediterranean; secondly, as, in its later shape, one of the states which were carved out of the Eastern Roman Empire. The history of Sicily is wholly misunderstood if it is taken, as it often is, for merely part of the history of Italy” (p. vi.) Nothing in this volume is better worth reading than the essay on “The Normans at Palermo.”

“The first group deals with the Roman power in the West, and with some of its chief seats in the intermediate time above defined. . . . The second group deals with the history of Southeastern Europe, and

with the Greek lands as a part of Southeastern Europe.” The first group contains four essays, the second five. They are not all reprinted just as they first appeared. Nothing is more characteristic of Mr. Freeman’s method than the way in which he has revised, rewritten, and combined these essays—however recent in composition—in order to adapt them to changed times. The essay on “Race and Language” is made up of two articles from the *Contemporary* and *Fortnightly Reviews*; that on “Mediæval and Modern Greece” of three articles from the *Edinburgh*, *National*, and *British Reviews*. “There was,” he says, “necessarily a great deal of repetition and a great deal of temporary matter. On the other hand, each essay contained some matter which I looked on as worth preserving. . . . Purely temporary matter I have tried to get rid of; but the history of the year 1878 is not necessarily temporary matter, any more than the history of any earlier year”—a good remark.

One of the most striking passages in the book is in the essay upon “The Byzantine Empire,” where, after noting the familiar fact that the Roman Empire had no fixed rule of succession, Mr. Freeman undertakes to show why it could not have one. We do not feel sure that his explanation is correct, but it is well worth citing: “As late as the legislation of Justinian the legal theory still was that the Roman people, by a special act in each case, transferred to each succeeding emperor the powers which were inherent in the people itself. With such a theory as this there could be no legal hereditary succession. There could not even be any regular law of election; for election supposes a recognized office to which somebody or other must be chosen; it does not apply to an extraordinary office created in each case by a special legislative act” (p. 263). We are inclined to think that the reason why there could be no fixed rule of succession is not to be found in the fact that there was “no recognized office”—the prevailing theory as to the Roman Empire regards it as a definite change in the constitution, the establishment of a new magistracy with more exalted powers—but in the fact that this new office was a *tyranny*, in the Greek sense of the term. A republican magistracy has a rule of election; a monarchy, with roots in the past, has a safe rule of hereditary succession; but a government founded by force is upheld only by force, and at any moment it is at the mercy of the strongest.

We are glad to see the doctrine asserted (p. 430) of the essentially independent development of the Greek religion; although here, again, Mr. Freeman goes further than we can follow him. “The Greek might adopt some Phœnician ideas—some would have us believe that he adopted some Phœnician deities—but the Greek and Phœnician creeds could never be really fused together, as one Aryan creed could be fused with another. Zeus and Jupiter, originally one, could be fused together again; neither could be worshipped with the rites of Baal or Moloch.” This is excellent; but—to say nothing of the established identity of Melikertes and Herakles, for instance, with Phœnician deities—Mr. Freeman forgets here the important fact that, in the Empire, the Roman religion was completely transfused with Asiatic superstitions; and not merely the worship of Cybele, Isis, and Mithras, with all their oriental rites, but Jupiter himself was amalgamated with oriental deities and worshipped with their ceremonial.

Mr. Freeman says “the Southern *S’aves*” (rather than *Slavs*), and defends the spelling on three grounds: “First, no English word ends in *v*. Secondly, we form the names of other nations in the same way: we say a *Suede*, a *Dane*, and a *Pole*, not a *Swed*, a *Dan*, or a *Pol*. Thirdly, it is important to bear in mind the history of the word—the fact that *Slave*, in the sense of *δούλος*, is simply the same word with the national name” (p. 381). For all that we prefer the other spelling, if only to avoid ambiguity—“the Southern Slaves” has an ambiguous sound, especially to an American ear. As to his arguments, we have at least the town of *Kiev*; *Yaroslav*, *Tambov*, and similar Russian names, are also becoming familiar, and many Hebrew grammars in English use *Tav* and *Vav* instead of the un-Hebrew *Tau* and *Vau*, or *Waw*. *Slav* is, we suppose, pronounced with the Continental sound of the vowel, which is not the case with *Swede*, *Dane*, and *Pole*. The third consideration cannot outweigh that of ambiguity, and at any rate the etymology is shown clearly enough with either spelling. “Slaves” is, besides, offensive to the eye of the Slav, and in hasty newspaper printing very frequently changed into *slaves*, to the confusion of the reader.

Camps and Tramps in the Adirondacks, and Grayling Fishing in Northern Michigan. By A. Judd Northrup. (Syracuse, N. Y.: Davis, Bardeen & Co.)—The beauties, sports, and perils of the Adirondacks have been so often set forth by enterprising amateurs in the past few years that a book on the subject to be successful must depend on something

entirely outside the recital of tame facts. Since the Rev. Mr. Murray and his friends have exterminated the deer by the sportsmanlike amusement of illegal night-hunting, and the few trout left by the pickerel are relentlessly harried by and for the tourist, in and out of season, the contemplation of natural scenery is almost the only resource of the traveller in these wilds, and a truthful account of exploits with rod and gun could not be made of thrilling interest. Mr. Judd takes us through different parts of the Adirondacks in company with various citizens of Syracuse, whose real names and avocations he reveals in the preface. The conversations of this party while in camp indicate the same spirit of recklessness and hilarity which always seems to pervade such places. For instance, the "Neophyte," the "Professor," and the "Captain," after supping sumptuously on broiled trout, will talk for two pages about the incidents of going to bed in a sportsmanlike way, and nearly the same space is occupied in giving the information that a cigar and a nap followed a "noon-day lunch." The book is evidently truthful as to the fish and game killed on the different expeditions. There were but two deer shot by night-hunting, and only one story of trout-fishing (that on page 249) would Murray have deemed worthy of record. The large hotel of "Pol" (short for Apollos, and not "Paul," as Mr. Judd has it), on the St. Regis, receives an all too-flattering notice for those who remember "Pol" when he lived in the little log-house in the woods; the meal he then gave for twenty-five cents contained more good substantial food than he now furnishes in a week at his present vast and comfortless establishment.

The "Grayling Fishing" is given as a supplemental chapter, and contains a very good description of the head-waters of the Au Sable River, which Mr. Judd descended hardly far enough to get into the good fishing. He notes the fact of grayling being so stay-at-home in their habits that when cleared out of one pool it is a long time before they are replaced by new-comers. This peculiarity, together with their great freedom in taking bait or fly when in the humor, Mr. Judd considers unfavorable to their long survival in the few streams they are known to inhabit. The first twenty-five miles of the Au Sable from Hartwick's is now nearly fished out, though five or six years since there were taken from one small pool within that distance, and in less than half an hour, eighteen grayling averaging over half a pound each. The hints Mr. Judd gives about other accessible grayling rivers in Michigan are trustworthy, as well as his descriptions of the habits of the fish and their way of taking. The book ends with a spirited description of a storm on Lake Huron, during which "the angry orb wrapped himself in tinted clouds which he dyed in blood," and "winds shrieked and howled among the ropes and chains like affrighted spirits of evil." The gallant *Marine City*, however, weathered the tempest and arrived safely at Detroit, where Mr. Judd takes leave of her and of his readers.

The Nineteenth Century: A History. By Robert Mackenzie. (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1880. 8vo, pp. 463.)—This is the work of a Liberal Englishman, anxious to tell of the advance of the race, and chiefly of Great Britain, in order to encourage his countrymen to persevere in the path of freedom and reform. He deprecates war and condemns the "imperial" policy of the present and past, though he is not indifferent to the glorious achievements of British soldiers even when their cause was not strictly just. He delights in the achievements of peaceful industry, in the acts of wise philanthropy, and, above all, in the grand attempts of the century at righting wrongs and carrying out enfranchisement. His liberalism borders on optimism, and the tone of his narratives is charitable—as to individuals—even when he paints the darkest sides of former oppression or still lingering remnants of barbarism. These pictures, however, are painted in the darkest colors, and never relieved by the softening light of opposite traits; and exaggeration in expressions is often added to the total absence of extenuation. Thus, we read about the politico-social conditions at the beginning of the century: "Slavery still existed throughout the world to an enormous extent. The great mass of the Russian peasants were serfs. There were nine million slaves [*sic*] in Hungary. The peasantry of Austria and Prussia were nearly all slaves [*sic*]. America had put down the slave-trade, but she still owned slaves, and had not begun [*sic*] to question the propriety of doing so." And this is preceded and followed by sketches of English life as dismal as the following:

"Women and children worked in coal-pits. They dragged about little wagons by a chain fastened around the waist, they crawling like brutes on hands and feet in the darkness of the mine. Children of six were habitually employed. Their hours of labor were fourteen to sixteen daily. The horrors among which they lived induced disease and early death.

Law did not seem to reach the depths of a coal-pit, and the hapless children were often mutilated, and occasionally killed, with perfect impunity by the brutalized miners among whom they labored. There was no machinery to drag the coals to the surface, and women climbed long wooden stairs with baskets of coal upon their backs."

Substantially, however, our author's delineations are correct, and as his intentions are laudable, and his expositions instructive, we are not inclined to quarrel with him about precision and strict impartiality. We must also add that his style is plain and pleasant throughout, and the choice of his main topics very appropriate to the plan of the whole. The first book treats of the opening of the century, Napoleon Bonaparte and the Congress of Vienna; the second of the social condition of Great Britain, the Reform Bill, "the redress of wrongs," Chartism, English wars, the victories of peace, Christian missions, charities, the Anglo-Indian Empire, and the British colonies; and the third and last of France, Prussia, Austria, Italy, Russia, Turkey, the United States, the Papacy, and the general progress of liberty in Europe. There is unity in all this, agreeably to the correctly chosen title, '*The Nineteenth Century: a History.*' Were the title '*History of the Nineteenth Century,*' nothing would be more imperfect and defective than this book; for not only are literature, philosophy, and similar topics wholly left out, but even the political history of the century is only given in certain outlines, and entire countries are completely, or almost completely, ignored.

This feature is aggravated by the author's peculiar way of narrating history without biographical features, and almost without names, personal or geographical. Thus, Spain is only incidentally mentioned in some scattered lines, and no such names as Charles IV., Ferdinand VII., Christine, Isabella, Amadeo, Alfonso, Don Carlos, Espartero, Cabrera, Narvaez, O'Donnell, Prim, or Castelar can be discovered in the whole book. The insurrections in the Spanish colonies are not related. The same is the case with Portugal and her former dependencies, such figures as Dom Miguel and the Pedros being as completely forgotten as the Carloses, Hidalgo, or Bolivar. Sweden and Belgium do not exist for the book. The history of Eastern Europe is told without a mention of a single sultan, of Ali Pasha, Mehemet Ali, or Ibrahim Pasha; of Kutuzoff, Diebitsch, or Skobelev; of Beust, Deák, or Andrassy; or of any Greek or Pole or Turk, Osman Pasha alone excepted. The sieges of Saragossa, Cadiz, Missolonghi, Varna, Warsaw, Antwerp, Buda, Comorn, and Silistria are all alike passed over in silence. And yet the author has not wasted his space, and there are few paragraphs in his book the contents of which are not interesting; only the selection of topics is limited, and the attention bestowed upon them very unequal: some descriptions are full and graphic, others meagre and pale. There are events told as briefly and in such chronological disorder as the following:

"We bombarded Acre to restore the dominion of Turkey over Syria. We sharply chastised the Algerines for their practice of piracy. . . . Three times we fought with China. Once we bombarded a considerable Japanese town. We had four wars with the Kaffirs. We had a toy war with Persia. We subdued the natives of New Zealand. We waged with the Abyssinians a doubtful quarrel a war composed of one battle, and memorable chiefly for its enormous cost. We fought victoriously against the Ashantees. Finally, we were dragged by the unwarrantable measures of one of our public servants into a war with the Zulus, of the origin and early conduct of which we have the deepest reason to feel ashamed."

No name of a commander here, none of a battle-field, no date. Nor are the author's dates always correct, in spite of their paucity. The French States-General did not meet on "May 2, 1789" (p. 18), but on May 5; Robespierre was not guillotined on "July 27, 1794" (p. 29), but on July 28; the peace of Amiens was not concluded in "1801" (p. 27), but in 1802; the Vienna insurrection in which Latour was murdered did not break out on "Oct. 4, 1848" (p. 343), but on Oct. 6; the battle of Novara was not fought on "March 24, 1849" (p. 358), but on March 23; that of Solferino not on June "25," 1859 (p. 363), but on June 24; the emancipation of the Russian serfs was not decreed on "Feb. 19, 1861" (p. 383), but on March 3 (Feb. 19, O. S.); King William was not crowned as German emperor in "Dec., 1870" (p. 308), but on Jan. 18, 1871. Among other inaccuracies we have noticed the mention of a "king of Austria" (p. 65); of twenty-two Swiss cantons (p. 66) at a time when there were not yet so many; of the duchy of Warsaw as a grand duchy (p. 67); and of the mob of Paris waging "for days incessant war with the troops" under Louis XVIII. (p. 257), which is an anachronism.

Needlework. By Elizabeth Glaister, author of '*Art Embroidery,*' etc. With Illustrations. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—There are

more useful hints in this little book than in most of its kind; many of the remarks upon color, stitches, and material are good and suggestive. But it expresses with innocent unconsciousness views which it would be hard to deal with seriously but for the fact that they are very much in vogue. We are told, to be sure, that "honesty, industry, and economy, . . . patience, judgment, learning, and taste, are all required of those who would weave Penelope's web," and that if the embroidery is the product of your own thought, it will give it an air of originality that can never be attained through the intelligence of others. But the first, at least, of the requisite virtues would seem to be a little inconvenient to one who should follow Mrs. Glaister's recommendations. One of the advantages of decorative needlework, the author says, is that in no other art is it so easy to profit by the genius of others, and she dilates on the many sources from which a design may be culled—from picture galleries, old manuscripts, Moorish vases, metal-work, heraldry, etc. "Convey, the wise it call."

The general remarks as to the kind of design to be used for particular objects, such as curtains, etc., seem valuable. The descriptions are less so. The following design for a bed-quilt, for instance, leaves little here below untouched: "We have seen one on which sunflowers and poppies, peacocks and owls, the rising sun, the moon and stars, with other appropriate suggestions of day and night, labor and rest, are composed into a beautiful design, and bordered with verses from the morning and the evening hymn."

Players of a Century: A Record of the Albany Stage, including notices of prominent actors who have appeared in America. By H. P. Phelps. (Albany: Joseph McDonough. 1880. 8vo, pp. 424.)—The local history of the theatre in the United States is slowly getting itself written. What Mr. Ireland has done admirably and at length for New York, and what Mr. Clapp and Mr. Blake have more briefly attempted for Boston and Providence, Mr. Phelps has here accomplished for the Albany stage. We believe that Mr. Gabriel Harrison, the author of the 'Life of John Howard Payne,' has in MS. a history of the Brooklyn stage; and the earlier days of the drama in Philadelphia are recorded in the lives of W. B. Wood and F. C. Wemyss, although the second city of the Union in point of size has not as yet seen the history of its stage set forth in order and at length in a volume devoted to this special service.

Seven years ago Mr. Henry D. Stone published in Albany a book of "Personal Recollections of the Drama" which, although written in a fragmentary manner, contained many useful facts and many amusing anecdotes. This book has been of service to Mr. Phelps, as the latter frankly acknowledges in his preface. The author of 'Players of a Century' seems to be familiar with the many but little-known books about the American stage, and his history will bear comparison with either Mr. Clapp's or Mr. Blake's, but from the slighter importance of its subject it is obviously inferior in interest to Mr. Ireland's valuable volumes. Much of Mr. Phelps's matter has already been contributed to the Sunday edition of the *Albany Argus* from week to week during the past year. It now appears revised and enlarged in the present edition, wisely limited to two hundred and fifty copies. The revision is careful. After a leisurely perusal of the volume we note only the misprinting in the earlier pages of the names of the authors of the 'Heir-at-Law' and the 'School of Reform' as Coleman and Moreton—with a superfluous *e* in both cases. The index, an indispensable adjunct in all books of this class, seems, so far as we have been able to test it, well made and sufficient. The printing of the date of each chapter in the running head-line would have been an advantage; to have to look back sometimes seven or eight pages to find out the year is always a loss of time.

From any book of this type it is possible to glean curious incidents and anecdotes, and Mr. Phelps's book is no exception to the rule. We are told, for instance, that in February, 1865, there was acted in Albany "the 'Siege of Troy' (first time in America), dramatized from the 'Iliad' by Geo. Middleton." We learn also that one of the earliest dramatizations of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" was made by Mr. A. B. Street, the poet; and the programme is given (p. 215) of a performance in which, as often before, the "Tartuffe" of Molière was brought to the front as a battering-ram. Between 1839 and 1863 one of the theatres of Albany was occupied as a church; on the occasion of the final performance of the former year the evicted manager announced, with evident satire, "Last night of the ALBANY THEATRE previous to being converted into a CHURCH. This evening, will be presented the startling comedy of the HYPOCRITE!!!"

Fine Arts.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—FIFTY-FIFTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION.—II.

THE unimpressiveness of the exhibition is due, even more than to the dispiriting array which we considered a fortnight ago and which forms the mass of the display, to the circumstance that the pictures by the younger painters are both fewer in number and in the main less striking than usual. Mr. Chase, Mr. Duveneck, Mr. Eakins, and Mr. Shirlaw send nothing, and Mr. Eaton is represented by an old and not too interesting work. Since the Academy exhibition will long remain the principal art event of each year, in popular esteem certainly, such an attitude on the part of the new society as this may fairly be taken to indicate, is, perhaps, to be deprecated; for a long time yet it will be wise to attempt to redeem rather than to rival the Academy; if the impression left by an exhibition which is in certain cardinal regards homogeneous is valuable, as no doubt it is, the advantage of the comparison which the juxtaposition of the art of the Academy and that of the "new men" affords is not to be overlooked. The present exhibition, however, does afford such an opportunity to a considerable extent, and in spite of the absentees there is for this purpose an instructive showing of interesting work. Mr. Thayer's portrait in the west room, Mr. Maynard's, Mr. Vinton's, and Mr. Weir's in the south room; Mr. Weir's again in the east room, Mr. Fuller's "Quadroon," Mr. Flagg's well-to-do French farmer, Mr. Witt's heads and a few others, arrest the wandering attention at once.

The first mentioned is to our mind the "gem," as it is called, of the exhibition. It portrays the head and shoulders of a young girl, with brown hair, grey-blue eyes, and fair complexion, clad in light summer attire, the white waist disclosing the neck and arms under a thin haze of muslin, caught together at the bosom with a bunch of daisies for sole ornament. It is a portrait of simplicity itself, the suggestion of the face and figure being carried out in the details with a consistency which one scarcely knows whether to call a caressing subtlety or an almost objective directness. Its merits as portraiture are not less evident than its pictorial excellence; it is as clear that it is a "likeness" of uncommon fidelity as that it is an agreeable picture; that is to say, it has that distinct individuality which a professed portrait is only likely to attain when the person painted is really characterized. This adds to its attractiveness very appreciably and yet very delicately; one feels so strongly that there is no hint of factitiousness about its charm as to be sure that any trace of predetermined prettiness in it would throw the whole thing out of key, and its pervasive simplicity be speedily sacrificed. Every one who knows how far rarer simplicity is in art than even the sincerity which is, nevertheless, essential to it, will perceive the distinction of Mr. Thayer's success in this portrait, the rendering of which not only betrays a singularly sympathetic feeling for the elusive charm of the subject but exhibits a pictorial refinement, credit for which may be divided between the sitter and the painter; it would have been lacking, no doubt, if the painter had had a model of inferior sweetness and grace, and at the same time we know no other artist whose interpretation of these qualities would seem quite so spontaneous. There is, it should be said, nothing over-sweet, or, indeed, sensuous about the picture; the face is far from regular, the forehead high and the cheeks colorless; and the figure is of an almost reedlike slowness. Neither is there anything conventional, as if to suggest an ideal of purity. The impression it makes is almost a moral one; there is a suggestion of something high and quite distinct from sensible beauty—at all events, something curiously elevating—and yet the moment one thinks of this its pictorial charm recurs and protests that both in idea and aspect it is too thoroughly simple to be morally otherwise than meaningless. It is, moreover, one of the few pictures here which both stimulates and satisfies the imagination; one may be sure of finding its suggestiveness a constant quality, and its charm not the less real because it is elusive. If in treatment it seems weak, the flesh over pale, the color a trifle muddy, and the modelling not very sculptural, it still remains a question whether a more vigorous technique might not have proved insidiously hostile to the extreme delicacy of what the painter had here to express.

Mr. Fuller's "Quadroon" hangs opposite, and, though it is possibly the largest canvas that he has exhibited in New York, its interest is more obvious and transient than that of any of his work that we have seen, except his head in the east room and the spectral portrait in the recent

Broadway exhibition. Mr. Fuller paints nothing that is not agreeable in many ways. He is certainly to be called "original" with emphasis; and though occasionally his marked individuality shades into eccentricity, and though in general nothing is less agreeable than eccentricity, even in his most mannered works there is sensible a maturity that is inconsistent with wilfulness, and a dignity incompatible with whim. What may be said, however, is that he appears a little too content with the modulations of the single melody he is so fond of, and a little uncurious of the possibilities of painting that lie outside the circle of his cherished but unchanging palette. And if this seems like an unwarrantable demand that he should be something other than he is, it is to be admitted that his unconcern is not of a lotus-eating kind, and that his resources are in almost every way remarkable except in point of range. Color, for example, is an unfailing characteristic of his canvases; associated in a very just way with other pictorial elements, such as atmosphere and light in landscape, and expression and grace in figure-painting, but still conspicuously insisted on and adding a decorative richness that would in itself go far to atone for the absence of other qualities. It does, indeed, constitute the main attraction of this "Quadroon," which in other respects is conventional enough; formal in composition, indefinite in some details where structural distinctness would have been agreeable, and rather characterless in sentiment; and it constitutes the sole attraction of the head in the east room. Color, however, delightful as it is, and little likely to be overdone under American skies, counts quite as largely when instead of being the end of painting its infinite advantages as material are considered. Mr. Bunce's moonlit Venetian scene in the east room is quite as fine in color as Mr. Fuller's contributions, and in poetic suggestiveness is as much finer as Mr. Fuller's own better work, such as "The Turkey Pasture," is. It is the best thing Mr. Bunce has exhibited here, avoiding conventionality with a success which generally eludes the painter of Venice, and yet managing to preserve and even heighten the artificial romantic charm by a frank treatment in which Venice as Venice seems to have been forgotten and only nature itself kept in mind. In other words, Mr. Bunce has here contrived to paint the lagoons as simply and directly as if he were painting the East River, and we have accordingly his notion of them rather than Ziem's, for instance. That alone would not compel one's interest, of course; Mr. C. C. Coleman has an ultra-realistic Venetian canvas in the north room which illustrates how needful it is that a painter's conception should be something more than merely his own property. Mr. Bunce's picture is admirable not only because it is unconventional, but because it is of very positive attractiveness. It is, moreover, excellently painted, and in securing the advantages of impasto has been cleverly careful to avoid obtruding pigment.

Mr. Porter's large portrait in the south room will also occur to many people in speaking of the decorative use of color. It asserts its claims to

such consideration, certainly, with great aggressiveness, but to recognize them with any heartiness would be to depreciate decorative painting, which we cannot help thinking Mr. Porter does quite as much to vulgarize as to adorn. This is, of course, quite aside from the spiritual and mental qualities of his work; in this portrait these are trivial, and the sacrifice of them to mere millinery is complete. But the millinery itself, exquisitely rendered as its textures are, and cleverly disposed as it is in line and mass, has an air of artificiality, of display, of regardlessness, so to speak, that cheapens its decorative quality; its richness has something flash about it, and to a susceptibility of delicate fibre it will seem a little too gross to be impressive. It is a great pity; there is so little color in the exhibition. Besides what we have mentioned, Mr. Reinhart's landscape in the north room is the only canvas of any importance that occurs to us in which color is insisted on with any emphasis. In almost every respect Mr. Maynard's "A Mexican Portrait," which hangs near by, is far more pleasing than Mr. Porter's. But for the singular mistake of the background into which the reddish-yellow hair of the girl blends indistinguishably, and which gives a dull tone to the whole canvas, it would be one of the most effective things here; it is difficult to see how a painter of so much feeling and skill as it displays could have painted the awkward and wooden family interior in the corridor, but we suspect a weakness of the critical faculty in Mr. Maynard which would explain the shortcomings of the one as well as the blemishes of the other. The portraits by Mr. Vinton, Mr. Weir, and Mr. Volk are admirably conceived, and there is excellent painting in all of them, the head of the first, the hands in Mr. Weir's, and the drawing of Mr. Volk's drapery being really striking. The best work of the exhibition is in portraiture. In landscape there is almost nothing noteworthy, though we may mention a hillside with cattle by Thos. Allen, a new name to us, which has the charm of naïveté, and is warm and sunny, and several Corot-like green-and-gray studies by Mr. Murphy—unconsciously Corot-like, however, and having none of the disagreeable look of intentional imitation. The hanging committee apparently neglected to make this distinction, and treated them with some contempt, which was also the fate of a small landscape by Mr. Thayer that may be good or bad for aught any one whose "vision's limited" knows. In genre Mr. Sartain's solid work makes the most enduring impression, perhaps. Except a vigorous and masculine though not over-refined statuette by Mr. Bartlett, of Boston, and a medallion and two busts by Mr. Warner, the sculpture is of no moment. Even these are placed in unnecessary obscurity, which nevertheless does not entirely conceal the noble and exquisite handiwork of Mr. Warner; although one can see but one side of it, it is possible to discern in the marble bust that just and subtle compromise between characterization and ideality which defines his position as easily the first portrait sculptor that we have.

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